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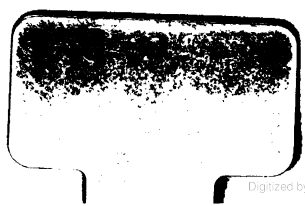
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HISTORY

OF THE

WEST INDIES:

COMPRISING

BRITISH GUIANA, BARBADOES,

ST. VINCENT'S, ST. LUCIA, DOMINICA, MONTSERRAT,

ANTIGUA, ST. CHRISTOPHER'S, &c. &c.

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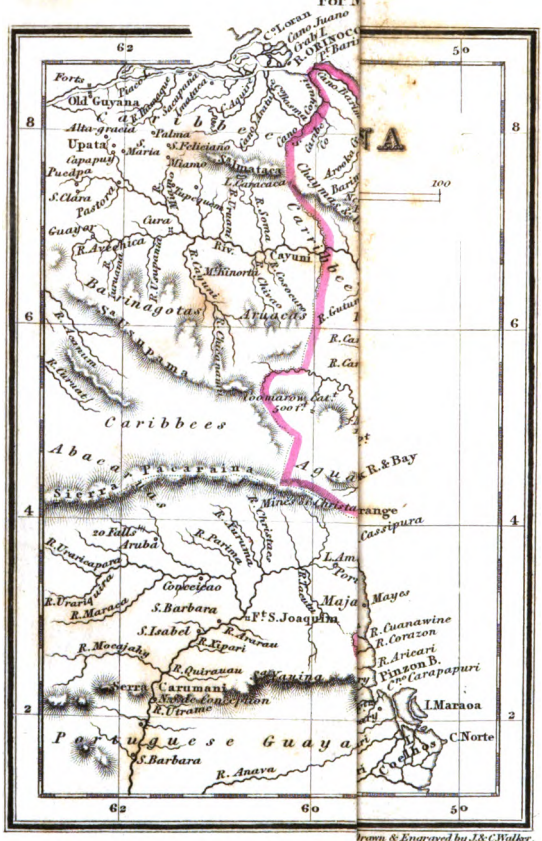
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WEST INDIES.

BOOK I.

BRITISH GUIANA.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY, AREA, HISTORY, &c. OF DEMERARA, ESSEQUIBO, AND BERBICE.

British Guiana, embracing the settlements on the rivers Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, and covering an area of nearly 100,000 square miles,[1] extends about 200 miles from east to west, along that alluvial portion of the South American Continent termed the 'Main,' which is formed by the deltas of the mighty rivers Amazon and Orinoco, having for its boundaries on the east the mouth of the river Courantyn, in lat. 6° 10′ north, long. 56° 2′ 5″ west; on the west the

[1] Under the Demerara and Essequibo districts, 70,000 square miles; and within the Berbice territory, 25,000 ditto.

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boundaries of Colombia, between the Baryma and Pomeroon rivers [1], about lat. 8° north, long. 60° west, and to the southward or inland, about 100 leagues, or perhaps to a mountain range (the Cordilleras) extending on the eastward to within two degrees of the equator [2].

General History.—A detail of the early history of this part of the South American Continent would be out of place in a work whose chief object is to enable the British public to form a correct view of the position, magnitude, and importance of our Co-

[1] Some consider the river Baryma in latitude 8° 35′ north, longitude 60° 10′ west, the western boundary; others the Pomeroon river, latitude 7° 40′ north, longitude 58° 50′ west; but the limits have never yet been completely settled.

[2] The territories on this coast are called, 1st, Spanish; 2nd, British; 3rd, French; and 4th, Portuguese, Guiana. The 1st, lying on both sides of the Orinoco, and extending south and south-west to the Rio Negro, and the Portuguese settlements, is bounded on the east by the river Baryma in 8° 50′ north latitude, 60° 5′ west longitude; 2nd, British (formerly Dutch) Guiana described in the text; and 3rd, French Guiana (called Cayenne, from the name of the island on which the chief town stands,) extends from the boundary of British Guiana on the west, to Vincent Pinçon's bay, near Cape North, in latitude 2° 35′ north, longitude 51° west; (this bay the Portuguese have confounded with the bay of the great river Oyapoko, which joins the sea in north latitude 4° 35′ west, longitude 51° 20′;) and 4th, Portuguese Guiana, it is alleged, extends from Cape North between the parallel of 1° and 2° 25′ north latitude to the junction of the great river Amazon with the Rio Negro or black river, thus cutting off the southern parts of French, British, and Spanish Guiana, from 51° to nearly 65° west longitude, 800 miles, and having for its south and south-west boundary the great river Amazon.

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lonies; the leading points of the European settlement and English acquisition will therefore suffice. So early as 1580 the Dutch attempted to form small settlements along this coast on the banks of the Amazon, Orinoco, and Pomeroon rivers (for trading purposes); on the latter named river they had a factory called *Nieuw Zealand*, and in 1581 the States-General of Holland privileged certain individuals to trade to the coast. These proceedings were viewed with a jealous eye by the Spaniards, who, aided by the Indians, drove the Zealanders from their station. The persevering character of the Dutch would not allow a first check to daunt their efforts; their commander Joost Van Den Hoog succeeded in gaining possession of a small island at the junction of the Mazerooni and Cayuni, called Kykoveral, and in 1602 Jan Van Peere, a native of Flushing, attempted to open a trade with the Indians of the Orinoco, but was defeated by the Spaniards; the Zealanders, however, about this time effected a settlement on the banks of the Essequibo: in 1613 they reported their colony to be in a flourishing condition, and in 1621, the Dutch Government undertook to supply the colonists with negro slaves from Africa; for the prosecuting of which trade a company was formed and a monopoly granted. Jan Van Peere, with his companions, when driven by the Spaniards from the Orinoco, commenced colonizing on the banks of the Berbice river, and cleared a large extent of territory between the rivers of Berbice and Courantyn. In 1657, the Zealanders colonized on the river Pomeroon, and the creek Morocco, and erected thereon

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the towns of New Zealand and New Middleburgh. It is said that, in 1662, after its settlement, the *whole coast* was ceded by Charles II. to Lord Willoughby, the then Governor of Barbadoes, who named the principal river wherein Paramaribo is situate, and, in fact, the whole colony, *Surry*ham (in honour of the Earl of Surry, the term being afterwards changed into *Surinam*), and that the colony was purchased from the heirs of Lord Willoughby by the British Crown, and exchanged with the Dutch Government for New Holland, in North America (now New York). Essequibo, in 1665, was taken by the English, and afterwards plundered by the French; but both were expelled from the Dutch settlements, in the following year, by an expedition from Holland. In 1669 the whole of Dutch Guiana was transferred from certain gentlemen in Amsterdam, Flushing, &c., who claimed to be proprietors, to the Dutch West India Company. In 1712 the French took possession of Berbice by force from the Dutch proprietors; but, in 1714, returned it to its former owners, on the payment of a sum of money. At this period the States-General contracted for the supply of negroes to the colony, in the proportion of two-thirds male, and one-third female, at the rate of 250*l.* each.

In 1720 the proprietors of Berbice, not having a capital equal to the cultivation of which the colony was capable, raised a fund of 3,200,000 florins, divided into 1600 shares of 2000 each, to be employed solely in cultivating sugar, cocoa, and indigo; 50 per cent. was to be repaid in 1724, the remainder

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when required by the Directors, who consisted of seven Proprietors (afterwards increased to nine), of 20,000 florins each, residing at Amsterdam: the former Proprietors of Berbice were also to be paid 800,000 florins, or allowed to purchase 400 shares. From this period the Colonies rapidly flourished and extended; coffee cultivation was introduced from Surinam, and a fort built at the junction of the Canje. A passage from the river Amazon to the Essequibo was discovered, in 1735, by a Portuguese named Silva de Rosa, who had been private secretary to the Viceroy of Brazil; but, having killed a nobleman in a duel, he fled with some negroes in a canoe along the Rio Branca, Tacusa, or Tatacotu, Maou, and across the lake Amuca; thence entering the Rippanouny, and finally reaching Essequibo.

In 1741 the planters at Essequibo, thinking the low lands near the sea more productive than the upper country, over which they had previously settled, began emigrating to the former; and, in 1745, the Directors of the Chamber of Zealand gave permission to form plantations on the uninhabited coast of the river Demerara. A most disastrous negro insurrection took place in Berbice in 1763, from which the colony was not relieved until after eleven months' desolation, and only then by the arrival of a strong squadron from Holland. Courts of policy and of civil and criminal justice were established for Demerara 1773, on an island named Borsden, about twenty miles up the river; but, the following year, the seat of Government was removed from thence to the east point of the mouth of the river, and named

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Stabroek, now George Town. In 1781 the colonies on the Essequibo and Demerara were placed under the protection of Great Britain by a squadron of Admiral Lord Rodney's fleet; but, in 1783, the French took temporary possession of the whole Dutch settlements, which, in 1796, surrendered to the British forces under the orders of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and commanded by Major-General White. These settlements were, however, restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Amiens, in 1802, but again taken possession of by England on the breaking out of the war in 1803; since which period they have belonged to Great Britain. In 1812 all distinctions between the colonies of Essequibo and Demerara, whether of jurisdiction or otherwise, were abolished —the office of commander of Essequibo was done away with, the courts of civil and criminal justice of both colonies united at Demerara, and the judicial establishment at Fort Island discontinued; the name of the capital was also changed from Stabroek to George Town, and a board of police appointed for its internal management, the financial representations of Demerara and Essequibo combined with the college of Kiezers, and the right of suffrage extended to all persons paying income tax on 10,000 florins, or possessing twenty-five slaves. In 1807 the slave-trade was only finally abolished. By an additional article to a convention signed at London, 13th August, 1814, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice were finally ceded to Great Britain, with the condition that the Dutch proprietors had liberty, under certain regulations, to trade with Holland. The

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year 1818 witnessed the first introduction of trial by jury and the commission of *oyer and terminer*. In 1820, after much angry dispute relative to the enormous and illegal exactions of fees, a tariff of the same was fixed, and a petition to the Crown, praying for an inquiry into judicial abuses, agreed to, which enquiry was ordered. A serious insurrection of the slaves took place on the east coast of the Demerara river, in 1823, which was finally suppressed, and Mr. Smith, a Missionary of the London Society, condemned to death for inciting the negroes to rebellion—a sentence which was commuted at home to total banishment from the West Indies: Mr. Smith died in prison pending the sentence. In July, 1831, the colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice were united into one government, and called British Guiana; the forms of the Courts altered; civil causes to be heard before a chief and two puisne judges, in criminal causes; three assessors to be associated with the judges, and a majority of the whole required for condemnation; and the College of Kiezers and financial representatives, which had been united in 1812, were separated.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT — RIVERS, MOUNTAINS, FALLS, &c.— GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE AND MORTALITY, &c.

With the exception of ranges of sand-hills, about twenty miles inland, and rarely more than forty or

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fifty feet above the level of the rivers and creeks (some on the west bank of the Demerara river are from one hundred to one hundred and fifty feet high, and nearly perpendicular), the whole country inhabited by the Europeans is perfectly flat and alluvial, bearing a striking resemblance to Holland and Flanders, and, like those countries, drained by canals and sluices, with lofty dikes or mounds of mud, of considerable thickness, embanking each estate, and kept, together with the numerous bridges, in repair by the proprietors of the land in which they are situate.

As the country is ascended from eighty to one hundred miles inland, its fine savannahs are interrupted by, in some places, a beautiful hill and dale territory, varied with high and frequently rocky land—presenting a strong contrast to the rather monotonous scenery which a dead flat possesses, and which those who have visited Bengal and the delta of the Ganges, as contrasted with the upper provinces, will readily understand. Further southward, at the Coomarow Fall (vide river Essequibo), the granite table-land belonging to the Cordillera rises to the height of six thousand feet above the level of the sea, at three hundred miles distant from the ocean.

The whole face of the coast of Guiana, from the Maranon to the Orinoco (except at Cayen, where the chain of Macrapan forms a buttress to the ocean), is low, and generally bordered with a sandy flat, extending far out to seaward;—moreover, the various large rivers with which it is intersected, continually bring down from the upper country vast quantities of

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alluvial matter, which, on depositing, form a margin of low ground, covered with mangrove bushes, and appearing an inaccessible barrier at low water, but yet completely hidden at full tide. About five hundred paces within these mangroves, the low and level savannahs commence, extending irregularly inland, and every where intersected by rivers, rivulets, and creeks, with a dense, luxuriant, and magnificent vegetation. The plantations are regularly ranged on either side of the great rivers or along the coast, in allotments of from five hundred to one thousand acres each [1]. The dwelling-houses, elevated on piles of timber, are generally close to the river's brink, with a wharf or landing place opposite, for the convenience of shipping produce: buildings of different descriptions are scattered about in every direction; sugar mills, driven by wind or by steam [2]; and on the coffee plantations, *logies*, or barns, three stories high, form a picturesque prospect, in addition to the numerous boats sailing up and down the rivers and creeks; while the insulated, well-tilled plantations, excellent brick-made and avenued roads, with numerous white bridges, afford a most pleasing indication of an industrious and intelligent community. Demerara and Essequibo contain eleven parishes, whose names

[1] The Dutch West India Company parcelled the allotments out into five hundred acre conditional grants, with an additional five hundred acres behind the first allotment, when two-thirds of the latter were cultivated. Sales and divisions of patrimony have caused some changes in the area of the estates.

[2] There are 216 sugar estates in the colony; each has a steam engine, many two.

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and extent are—*St. Mary's*, extending from Abary Maicony, and to Mahaica, thence to Plantation lowlands inclusive, and embracing the settlements on the banks of the Maicony and Mahaica creeks; *St. Paul's*, from plantation Northbrook to Cuming's lodge, inclusive; *St. George and St. Andrew united* embrace George Town and the plantations on the Cumingsburgh canal; *St. Matthew*, from George Town up the east bank of the river, as far as the settlements extend, including those in canal No. 3; *St. Mark*, from plantation Mindenburgh along the west bank of the river as far as the settlements extend, including those on canals No. 1 and 2; *St. Swithin*, from plantations La Grange to Jalousie inclusive; *St. Luke*, from plantation Blakenburgh inclusive to the Essequibo river, and along the east bank upwards as far as the settlements extend; *St. Peter* comprehends Leguan and Hog islands, in the mouth of the Essequibo river; *St. James*, Waakenham and Troolie islands, in ditto; *St. John*, from Schoeven creek to Capoey ditto, on the west coast of Essequibo river, including the settlements on the intervening creeks and on Tiger island; *Trinity*, from Capoey creek to the Pomeroon river, and as far as the British settlements extend. The physical aspect of the colony may be further judged of by its

Rivers.—The three great rivers within British Guiana are Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, with their numerous tributaries. To begin with the most westerly, the Essequibo, situate nine miles west of the Demerara river, at its embouchure from one side of the main land to the other is from 15 to 20 miles

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wide, and covered with many beautiful, low, and bushy islands, with shoals or sandy spits, extending from the north parts of the islets a considerable distance to seaward, and dividing the navigation into four separate channels. The most eastern island is termed *Leguan* (containing twenty-four sugar estates), between which and the east side of the river is the *ship channel*, a wide passage, but much encumbered with shoals. To the westward is a long and narrow island, called *Waakenham*, containing eighteen sugar estates; its dimensions are about nine miles long and three broad. To the north-west of the latter, and near the west shores, is a small islet, termed *Tiger Island* (containing three sugar estates). A succession of other islands[1] (one termed *Fort Island*, about fifteen miles from the mouth) extend to the southward and further up the river, from twenty-five to thirty miles, between all of which there are channels; but from the extensive deposits of mud, it is difficult to state the soundings for any length of time, the depth of water on the whole coast being continually undergoing a change, according to the heaviness of the rains or the duration of the winds that blow on the shore. From Fort Island the Essequibo runs nearly south for about thirty miles, where it is joined by the large river Cayuni, which runs nearly south-west, afterwards north-west, through the province of Colombian Guiana, where it is supposed to join some of the interior branches of the Orinoco; a little further, or inland, the Cayuni is joined by the

[1] Hog Island, the largest in the Essequibo; its south end extends nearly to Fort Island.

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Mazarooni river, which makes a considerable sweep to the north-west and then returns, so as to form a large peninsula, enclosing lofty mountains and considerable creeks or rivulets; indeed, for more than 100 miles inland the breadth of the Mazarooni is so great, and the wooded islands and creeks so numerous, that it has more resemblance to a lake than a river, and the influence of the tides is felt, at least in the Essequibo, sixty or seventy miles from the ocean; *i. e.* at Acetaca, the first fall. The enterprising Mr. Hillhouse, an engineer officer at Demerara, has recently explored the Mazarooni river, and from his manuscript journal, as kindly lent me by the intelligent and active Secretary of the Royal Geographical Society, I glean the following description of the river and the adjacent country.

The distinguishing island feature of the Mazarooni river commences at Caria island[1]; from this point, for nearly 100 miles, an innumerable string of islands divide the river into from five to ten different channels, in which space the two banks of the river are scarcely once visible together, and even one bank but seldom, the river continuing from three to four miles broad throughout the archipelago. The rapids commence between these islands, and at the fourth rapid (*Warimambo*) is a large open space in the centre of the river, which in the rains has the appearance of a vast lake, and in the dry season that of a rugged rocky plain.

[1] Caria was once a Dutch fort, and several plantations then existed on each bank, but now only to be traced by a few cocoa trees.

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Some of the falls are most difficult of ascent; the Caboory, for instance, is full thirty feet high, in four different ledges, and requiring an hour's hard labour to get over a space of about one hundred yards. The manner in which the falls are ascended is thus described by Mr. Hillhouse:—'The rapids do not run in one sheet over a level ledge, but force themselves through a number of fissures—large intermediate blocks of granite dividing the different shoots of the fall. At the base of these blocks is an eddy, into which the boat is forced, and becomes stationary, having no current either way. The crew then spring on the rock, and wade as far as they can find footing; by means of a long stout rope they then pull the canoe, or corial, into one of the shoots of the fall, where there is water enough to float her, and by main strength haul her up the ascent. They then take her out of the current, and lay her stern against the upper part of the rock, from the lower part of which they have thus ascended; and with her head right up the stream, at a given signal they all spring in, and, pulling with their whole might, endeavour to cross diagonally the different currents till they get into another eddy. This is the time of the greatest danger: if not active in seizing their paddles, the head of the canoe is taken by the current, and she drifts broadside down the fall and upsets. If not strong-handed also, she cannot stem the currents above, and goes down the fall stern foremost; the currents, at most of the rapids, run at the rate of ten or twelve miles an hour; and thus frequently many hours are consumed in gaining a few hundred

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yards.' On emerging from the almost interminable confusion of islands, creeks, and falls, and with the open and placid Mazarooni river like a great inland lake running south and west, the eye of the low-lander is agreeably astonished with a sight of *Arthur's Tables* (the first visible point of the mountains of Merumah or St. George, the great central chain of Guiana), at an apparent distance of about sixty miles, and which would seem by a comparison with other parts of the chain to be six thousand feet above the level of the sea. At the thirty-fourth and last fall, named *Teboco* (and the extreme southern limit of Mr. Hillhouse's expedition), a lofty mountain was observed due south, with a conical peak at the north extremity, like the crater of a volcano, equal in height to Arthur's Table, and named by the voyagers *Raleigh's Peak*; the Caranang creek appeared to lead towards it, but was not explored. At the fall of Teboco the river narrows to one-third of its usual breadth, but widens again immediately after; and at Aramayka the cliffs of Marybyacrew became visible, about one thousand feet high, with perpendicular northern faces, with a remarkable detached peaked rock on the west face of the cliffs called the *Caribisce*, the legend of whose nation states it to be a man turned into stone for presumptuously daring to scale the cliffs. At the point of Teboco, the granite, for the first time, assumes a regular formation, and as the river is ascended is continued to be found in strata, at an angle of about five degrees above the horizon, its apex being nearly northward: it forms the base of all the cliffs, to a height of six hundred to one

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thousand feet, when a perpendicular and cubical formation of quartz is the general superstructure to one thousand five hundred feet higher. From a little above Aramayka the chain of Merumah or St. George is seen bounding the horizon, stretching to the north, where it appears highest, and terminates abruptly, in perpendicular faces, like the other branches of the chain. Near the extremity, in a clear day, a white curved line is seen extending from the summit to the base of the chain; this is the Merumah creek forcing its way from the table land, a height of 1200 feet, to the valley of the Mazarooni.

At the fall of Macrebah navigation ceases; the creek winds about in the most opposite directions, and at every turn a large bold spit of white sand projects. The water, though perfectly transparent, is of a deep chocolate colour, and the sands are reflected in it of a bright claret or purple; the dark and still creek is fringed with a dense and gloomy foliage. While journeying in the midst of this gloomy valley a perpendicular cliff of 1500 feet high is suddenly seen, and, though distant, it appears as if it could be touched. Around are detached masses of rock, which seem abruptly torn from the gigantic walls of nature, and every two or three hours an immense block of granite must be passed in a deep channel, barely wide enough for the corial (canoe); then suddenly the channel widens into a shallow claret-coloured lake, 150 yards broad, but scarcely deep enough for the craft to swim in, and at last a capacious bason is entered, surrounded by a bold extensive sand-clay, as white as chalk, while the

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waters are as black as ink, without any perceptible current, though a fall of water is heard, and there is a foam like yeast on the surface, which remains the whole day without any visible alteration, save when a gust of wind coming down the fall, scatters the foam in flakes exactly resembling snow. At a distance a broken white line (the fall of Macrebah) of 100 feet high is seen struggling through a cluster of granite rocks, at the base of two quartz cliffs of mixed character.

Half way up the Macrebah fall, a small spring of clear, transparent, and slightly effervescent water, exists without the least ferruginous tincture, and issuing from a superior quartz formation, indicating, perhaps, that the extraordinary purple tinge of the waters of the creek is owing to a decomposition of granitic iron, in combination with a solution of astringent vegetable matter. The distance of Carulang creek (in which the Macrebah fall is situate) from the coast, is estimated at four hundred miles, including the sinuosities of the river; and the height above the sea, roughly calculated by the boiling of water at 208 Fahrenheit, above three thousand feet. A cataract above Macrebah, named Coomarow, is six hundred feet high, and exceedingly difficult of access; the greater part of the rise being an angle of forty-five, with an abrupt descent, and only ladders of roots. On the crest of the fall there is not more than two feet of water in dry weather; but in the rains the rise is above ten feet, when the surrounding country is totally submerged. The table land above the Coomarow fall is evidently the ex-

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treme height of the horizontal granite formation, the laminæ being here perfectly horizontal, and that of the bed of the creek in large plates or layers, of from one to three inches thick. The creek itself was one hundred yards broad and two feet deep, but completely choked with a sort of long grass, having stems as thick as a man's arm, dividing at top into a multiplicity of long threads, like the tails of horses, and completely covering the surface of the water.

The descent of the falls is accomplished with great rapidity. In less than one day the ascent of three may be got over, eighty or ninety miles being an easy day's journey. The middle channels are now chosen, where the current is most rapid, and the greatest body of water rushing to the coast. It requires four stout hands, two ahead and two astern, to give steerage way whilst shooting many crooked passages; that of Itackeck is a zig-zag of four turns, where not a few accidents have occurred to the small craft of the Indians.

We know nothing further of the Mazarooni region, and even this knowledge is imperfect, owing to Mr. Hillhouse's evident deficiency of astronomical instruments. The Essequibo and Cayuniare are almost unexplored.

Judging from Mr. Hillhouse's observations, the El-Dorado of the unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh (to which the fall of Teboco seems to be the key) is not a very fertile country. Dr. Hancock differs from Mr. H.; and until the land be better explored, it would be difficult to arrive at a correct judgment.

We may now proceed briefly to glance at the

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DEMERARA RIVER—situate to the south-east of the Essequibo, sixteen miles from Leguan Island, and about fifty-seven miles westward of the bar of the Berbice river, in 6° 40′ north latitude, and 57° 45′ west longitude, nearly three miles broad at its mouth, and becoming narrower as it is ascended. The capital of British Guiana, in latitude 6° 47′ north, longitude 58° 1′ west, formerly called Stabroek, now called George Town, is situated amidst a dense foliage on its east or right bank, about one mile and a half from a small fortification, built of mud and fascines, with two low platforms, and termed Fort William Frederick.

If it were not for the tropical scenery around George Town, it might be mistaken for a Dutch city. Except close to the river, the houses, raised on supports to prevent damps, are widely scattered, built of wood, after the Dutch style, with a *stoup*, coloured according to the fashion of the owners, surrounded by a garden and lofty trees, and separated from each other by canals, dykes, or mud embankments. The most ancient part of the capital, Stabroek, runs back from the river towards the forest, consisting of two rows of houses full a mile long, with a broad and shaded road between them, and a canal in the rear of each line of houses, communicating with the river. In consequence of the scarcity of fresh water, each house is provided with a large cistern, and pipes leading into it, for the preservation of rain-water. The barracks, hospitals, and public buildings in Demerara, are in evidence of the taste and munificence of the colonists, at whose

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cost they have been erected. George Town is divided into districts, thus :—Kingston, joining Fort William Frederick; Cumingsburgh, North and South; Vlissengen, which is subdivided into Rob's Town and Lacey's Town; Stabroek, a district in itself, and ancient part of the Dutch capital; also En Rust and Charles Town, which are bounded by plantation La Penitence. To the eastward of Fort William Frederick is situated Camp House, the residence of the governor; a few hundred yards to the east of which is the residence of the ordnance storekeeper. Between Camp House and the ordnance department, a little to the south, are placed two splendid hospitals, with kitchens, cisterns, &c., for the military; nearly opposite to which the new military barracks have been lately erected; they cannot be surpassed in accommodation in any part of the king's dominions —two for the men and officers, with kitchens, servants' apartments, cisterns, &c. &c. To the east of the ordnance department are the quarters of the engineers; and adjoining the engineers' quarters are the York and Albany barracks, built by the colony, for the accommodation of 200 men and officers. Facing the river, in the district of Stabroek, new public buildings of bricks, stuccoed, have been erected by the colony to accommodate all the public officers; they have cost the colony upwards of 50,000*l.* sterling. Near to the latter is the Scotch church, a very handsome modern building; to the eastward of which is the town guard-house, &c.

The river is navigable by ships of burthen for one hundred miles up, as far as the cataracts, and afford-

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ing an excellent harbour, capable of holding the whole navy of Great Britain; but unfortunately the bar will not allow vessels that draw more than eighteen feet to go over it. For thirty miles inland, along the banks of the Demerara, the country consists of extensive level meadows or savannahs; several sand-hills then appear, and, as the river is ascended, the country becomes more broken and mountainous.

The general direction of the river, ascending it, is south, with a slight inclination to east; the rapids, *in a straight line*, being not more than seventy English statute miles south by east of George Town, but one hundred and six by the course of the river. The difference of level between the water above and below the rapids is only twelve feet, and the river describes at them a very considerable arc of a circle, the chord of which is about one mile and a half. The rapids are descended safely in small canoes. Of its source we know, I believe, nothing certain.

The Berbice River, fifty-seven miles east of the Demerara, reaches the Atlantic in 6° 24′ north latitude. At its luxuriant-looking entrance, a little to the north of Fort St. Andrew, it is about three miles wide, with low cleared land on both sides, covered with trees, and at a distance resembles a number of islands. In the middle channel lies Crab Island (so called from its numerous crabs), about one mile in circumference, with a spit of land running out to the north and south, dividing the river into two navigable channels; the east with 17 to 20 feet, the west with but 8 to 13 feet water. Eight miles north of

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Crab Island is a bar of sand, with only seven feet on it at low water[1], thus lessening the importance of the harbour.

There are several small creeks on the coast, but navigable only by boats; and a shallow flat extending along the shore renders it impossible for vessels, except those of small draught, to approach within a league of the coast. Moderately sized ships can go up the river Berbice as far as Fort Nassau, which is at the distance of fifty miles in a straight line from the entrance; and vessels drawing fourteen feet water may, it is said, sail two hundred miles up the Berbice. The banks of the river are low, and covered with numerous plantations; as also along the sixty miles of sea-coast territory of Berbice, the roads through which close along the sea coast, communicating with Demerara, are kept in excellent repair at the expense of the individual proprietors through whose estates they pass, and may be said to be almost entirely formed of brick. The early Dutch settlers constructed a fortress fifty miles up the river, called Zelandia; but this was subsequently abandoned, and New Amsterdam built on the side of the river Canjee, at its confluence with the river Ber-

[1] Neap tides at Berbice rise from eight to nine feet, and springs eleven feet. In September, before the Equinox, they rise fifteen feet; the flood sets strong to the west, and the ebb to the east. The times of high and low water, at full and change of moon, along this coast, are,—seven miles off Bram's Point, 5 h. 00 m.; at Bram's Point, 5 h. 30 m.; off Fort Amsterdam, 6 h. 10 m.; Fort Zeelandia, 7 h. 00 m.; at Demerara Bar, generally at half-past four; and at Fort Frederick, at five.

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bice, two miles above Crab Island, on the east bank of the river, where it is intersected by canals, and has all the advantage of the tides.

The Canjee river, or creek, waters the Berbice district, and is navigable for schooners for fifty miles; but its course is then impeded by falls and cataracts. About forty miles below its head there is a creek, communicating with the Courantyn river, by which dispatches have been conveyed from Surinam to British Guiana by the Indians.

Three strong batteries protect the entrance of the river—two on the east side, and the other, York Redoubt, on the west side, opposite Crab Island. Fort St. Andrews, nearly four miles from the entrance of the river, and two from New Amsterdam, is, like Fort William Frederick in the Demerara river, a small, low fortification, consisting of four bastions, surrounded by a ditch or fosse, and mounted with eighteen 12-pounders. An extensive savannah or swamp extends in the rear of the fort (which is separated from New Amsterdam by the Canjee river or creek), so that it cannot be commanded from any adjacent point. Sixty miles east of Berbice river lies the Courantyn, about three miles wide at its entrance, with the navigation obstructed by many small islands and quicksands. The islets are fertile, covered with trees, and having on the west side good clean anchorage in five fathoms. The west banks of the river, which form the eastern boundary of Berbice, are under British jurisdiction, and have a smiling appearance of cultivation. Besides the foregoing, there are numerous other rivers,

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which in Guiana are termed *creeks*, though they would be considered large rivers in Europe. Among the principal is the Mahaica creek, about twenty miles to windward or eastward of the Demerara, between that and Abary creek; the Mahaicony is also on the east or windward coast, not far from the Mahaica; the Boesary is on the leeward coast, near the Essequibo. Along the interior or southern portion of the colony there are numberless small rivers and creeks, intersecting wild and almost impenetrable forests, which, during the rainy season, empty themselves in torrents into the larger rivers, Essequibo, Cayuni (of which we know very little), Mazarooni, Demerara, Berbice, &c.; which latter rivers generally flow towards the ocean in discoloured streams at the rate of six or seven knots an hour.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—Little is known of the geological strata of Guiana. An alluvial flat extends along the sea-coast for about thirty miles inland, terminating at a range of sand-hills. Efforts have recently been made to obtain water by boring, at George Town. In 1830, Major Staples sunk a shaft of 140 feet at Cumingsburgh: on arriving at the micaceous sub-stratum indicating a primary formation, a clear spring of water, strongly impregnated with iron, burst forth. This water is perfectly good for washing and for culinary purposes (except for tea), after exposure to the air. Wells have since been sunk in various parts of the colony, and water obtained at depths varying from 100 to 145 feet. This supply has proved a great advantage to the inhabitants. At twelve feet below the alluvial sur-

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face, an irregular stratum of fallen trees (of a kind called the Courida, and still known on the coast) was discovered, in a semi-carbonized state, and, at forty feet depth, blue clay; at fifty feet below the surface, another similar stratum of decaying wood, twelve feet thick; nine feet deeper, a compact of whitish grey clay; thirty-one ditto, yellow sand, mixed with clay; six ditto, violet-coloured clay, diminishing in shades to yellow light straw, and again merging into slate-coloured clay; the remainder, to a depth of 120 feet from the surface, is argile, the lower part being of that smooth, soapy surface indicating the purest Wedgewood clay. Mr. Hillhouse says, that it seems evident from this, 'that, some ages ago, this continent was habitable fifty feet below the present surface, and that it was then covered with an immense forest of Couridas, which was destroyed by conflagration, as appears by the ochrous sub-stratum. The sea must, at that time, have been confined to the blue water, where there is now eight or nine fathoms; and, whatever may have been the comparative level between the Pacific and Atlantic, on this side of the Isthmus of Darien the surface must have been then fifty feet lower than now.' It may, however, be supposed that the bed of the Demerara river had been gradually filled in by the alluvial deposit of earthy materials brought down by the floods, together with Courida and drift woods, as is now going on along the Guiana coast.

The delta of the Essequibo, and to a considerable extent along all the rivers, is decayed vegetable matter, forming a fertile black mould, on a clayey

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sub-stratum. As the Essequibo is ascended, the alluvium of the estuary changes to white sandstone, with scattered appearances of black oxyde of manganese, or black sand; to the sandstone felspar succeeds, and then granite. The mountain ranges seen on passing from the Essequibo into the Mazarooni, appear to be white quartz, 5000 feet high, having the appearance of gold, from the numerous shining particles of mica in the quartz, which give to the mass the appearance of the precious metals; thus forming the far-famed El-Dorado of the chivalrous and ill-treated Raleigh. Raleigh's Peak is supposed to be volcanic, and, according to the Indians, several volcanoes exist in the interior, particularly between the Siparoonee and Ripanoone rivers. On the Demerara river, the first indication of rock is met with at seventy miles from George Town, under water; it appears to be porphyritic sandstone. At the post-holder's, which is said to be in 6° 30′ (ninety-four miles from George Town), there is a large bed of rocks, of a granitic nature, with some hornblende; and at the rapids, 106 miles up, or seventy miles, as the crow flies, from George Town, there is abundance of stratified greenstone.

The structure of the mountains is principally granite, with a large proportion of ironstone. The coast lands of the whole colony are principally composed of an alluvial blue clay, intermixed with narrow strata of sand, and, on the Mahaica coast, with sand and shell reefs.

This tract is most particularly adapted to the cultivation of sugar, cotton, and plantains, to which

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it is mainly devoted; nor does there exist in the known world a soil possessed of such amazing richness and fertility. It is never manured, though an acre has been known to produce upwards of 6000 lbs. of sugar, or 20,000 lbs. of farinaceous food (the plantain), in a year. As we go deeper into the interior, the clay loses its blue tinge, and gradually becomes yellow; at this stage, it is always covered with a stratum of vegetable residuum, called pegas, which is the half-decayed vegetable mould from dead grass and leaves, and is, in many places, several feet deep, forming a great impediment to cultivation.

Plantains do not thrive in this land; but it is peculiarly favourable to the growth of coffee, for which it is principally cultivated; and the returns are ample, and of superior quality.

Behind the pegas lands come high ridges of sand, interspersed with valleys, in which is a slight admixture of clay. These sand reefs present many fertile spots for the cultivation of coffee, cocoa, arnotto, fruits, and ground provisions of all kinds; and, extending in their direction parallel with the sea-coast, are occupied exclusively by the Arawaak nation.

To the south of this belt the rocky region commences, consisting of elevated ridges and detached conical hills, resting on bases of sand, stone, granite, and silicious crystal, containing a great variety of ochres and iron ores, mica, prismatic, hexagonal crystals, and, in some instances, slight indications of the precious metals. Though it is fully as probable that gold and silver exist in the primitive mountains

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of the west, as well as in those of the eastern coast, yet no native specimens have ever been produced by the Indians within our territory. Two or three attempts at mining were made by the Dutch, on their first settlement in Essequibo, but the ore was not found worth the expense of working. The most probable site of the precious metals is in the mountains of the Attaraya and other distant nations.

The rocky region is possessed by the Accaways and Caribisce, interspersed with small settlements of Macousi and Paramuna; but these latter are principally found in the debatable land at the foot of the mountains, where they become the alternate victims both of the coast tribes and the mountaineers.

In addition to the foregoing details, derived from various sources, I am indebted to the urbanity and science of Dr. Hancock of Demerara, for the following developement of the geology of the interior of British Guiana, in which the learned and philanthropic doctor has long resided. Nothing of petrifactions, sea shells, or the organic remains of marine animals has yet been observed in the mountains of the interior of British Guiana. The principal component parts of the interior mountains are granite, porphyry, and their various modifications, all denoting a primitive formation; while the exterior ranges towards the coast of a minor elevation, are chiefly composed of indurated clays, with sand and gravel stones; indicating a secondary order of formation. The great rocks of the interior are chiefly of a conoidal figure. On a savannah in 2° 50′ north latitude,

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there is a mountain called *Weive* or *Wey-wey*, composed of *one* entire solid block of granite, seven hundred feet high; and about forty miles to the north-east is another still higher, called Taripoor (devil's rock); they are both of the cone or pyramid shape, much exceeding the Egyptian piles in elevation and magnitude. Veins of quartz are very common traversing the great masses of granite, and most perspicuous along the channels of the rivers in the dry season; the direction of all the strata in Guiana being almost uniformly from north-east to south-west. Vast quantities of iron are met with in the mountains, the soil of which, as also that of many parts of the interior, consists of a strong and fertile loam; being a mixture of clay, sand, and vegetable mould, with little calcareous earth, but much ferruginous matter, giving to the soil a reddish tinge in some places. The soil of some of the upland savannahs is composed of clay and gravel, very close, and though apparently sterile, yielding food for the immense herds of cattle and horses that depasture along the Rio Branco. Of a very pure white clay there are immense masses forming the high banks of the Essequibo above the falls, which would probably prove a valuable article in the manufacture of stone-ware or porcelain, as would also the huge blocks of milk-white quartz found in various places. Some indurated clays, of great hardness, have been found mixed with sand, mica, calcareous earth, oxyde of iron, &c. amorphous and full of particles of a metallic brilliancy. These indurations, which are of various degrees of hardness, lie in horizontal strata, breaking into dia-

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gonal plates; they are found along the edge of the water, and, Dr. Hancock thinks, are caused from the alternate influence of the sun and water, assisted by a deposition of heterogeneous earthy matters. Substances of a metallic nature, which have the appearance of ores, are also very abundantly met with in the mountains, but still more plentiful among the falls and rapids of the river. Rock crystal is found upon several mountains of Demerara, growing (if it may be so said) out of beds of quartz. Dr. Hancock only met with one species, and that always crystallized into hexagonal columns, and generally terminated by a single pyramid with from three to six faces. These columns are commonly found solitary, but are sometimes met with in groups, standing together, as it were, agglutinated. They are perfectly transparent, of a water colour, taking a fine polish, and nearly as hard as agate. Red agate is found in the Rio Maow opposite, and not far distant from a crystal mountain. Much of the land at Moroko is thickly scattered over with silicious gravel stones of an iron colour. At this range of mountains, primitive rock, in smaller or larger portions, is every where to be seen; no traces of a secondary formation are visible: on most of them are found large masses of indurated clay, scattered in loose masses amongst the granite, but no calcareous matter or organic bodies are to be found; and they appear as if undisturbed since the creation of the world. The Conoko mountains (belonging to the chain of the cataracts of the Orinoko) form an insulated group, seated on the elevated plains, which separate two great systems of rivers; the tributary

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streams of the Essequibo flowing north-east, and those of the Tacutu, Branco, &c. south-west, towards the Rio Negro and Amazon. From the summit of these mountains can be seen the spot where the Tacutu and Rapanooni take their rise. The soil here consists chiefly of a pure white clay, (not chalk as some suppose) giving to the Rio Branco and other rivers a milky colour, owing to the quantity of clay therein diffused, and in such a minute state of subdivision as to require several days before the waters will become transparent by deposition. In fine, as regards geological science, British Guiana presents a wide field for the geologist, and, in reference to the agriculturist, a great diversity of soil; the three leading features of which are first, the clayey alluvial soil of the coast, extending eight to ten miles inland; second, hills of silicious sand or gravel, which, with intervening fertile savannahs, extend to the falls sixty miles inland; third, a rich primitive soil; and, lastly, a mountainous country, with divers coloured ochres, indurated clays, and various mixtures of loamy earth and vegetable mould on beds of granite to a vast extent; all offering food, and the means of obtaining every necessary and comfort of life, to the hand of the industrious and skilful emigrant,

CLIMATE.—The mortality of Europeans on the early settlement or colonization of Guiana was very great, partly owing to torrid heat acting on a moist soil and dank luxuriant vegetation, pregnant with animal and vegetable decomposition, and partly owing to the intemperate habits of the settlers, and their non-conformity with the customs of the country and

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the dictates of nature: of late years, however, as the coast became cleared, and a free circulation was admitted, the health of British Guiana has materially improved, and may now be considered as good as the nature of a low country will permit in any zone, particularly when we consider the extraordinary quantity of rain which falls annually. In 1830 there fell, in five months, six feet eight inches of rain at George Town. It is difficult to ascertain accurately the quantity of rain falling annually, not only because Demerara is subject to two rainy seasons, but from the variation which takes place in cleared and drained land, on the sea-coast or in the interior. In the dry season, and when the sea-breeze prevails, there is rarely any moisture observable in the morning, the thermometer averaging about 82° of Fahrenheit during the night, with no very material difference, in the shade, during the day. At the distance of twenty miles from the sea, or where the country is not extensively cleared, the trees and plants will be found every morning dripping with dew, the thermometer falling to 76° or 78°, and a blanket is acceptable at night. As the country is ascended (or southerward towards the Equator) the vicissitude of climate is yet greater, and on the table land, 300 miles inland, the climate is described to be delicious, and the influence of the monsoons regularly felt in the periodical fall of rain. Two wet and two dry seasons mark the revolutions of the year, each continuing for three months; the wet, embrace the months of December, January, and February; and then June, July, and August, during which periods the thermometer is lower than at any

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other time, and the land winds (which are of course less healthy than the sea breeze) prevail. The dry season is exceedingly delightful; the morning twilight, commencing at four, gradually unveils a deep azure sky, over which the sun crosses cloudlessly from the ocean to the inland mountains, behind which it sets. The invigorating sea-breeze sets in at ten, giving animation to nature, and continuing to blow with increasing vigour till sunset, at 6 P. M. when it gradually dies away, but frequently returns again during the night.

During the wet season the wind is often from south to west, and the rain then descends in torrents, sometimes for two or three days without intermission, in the interior and on the coast; at these periods our sailors say it only leaves off *raining* to commence *pouring*; it appears to be admitted that the moisture, and consequently the fertility, of British Guiana, is greater than that of the contiguous coast of the Orinoco, and may be accounted for by the waters of the Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, having less declivity than those of the mighty Orinoco. Yellow fever (if in reality it ever did exist there) has for some years been unknown in Guiana, but agues, and what we term in India jungle fevers, are prevalent among new comers if they rashly expose themselves to the night air or vertical sun. Demerara has been cited as one of the strongest instances of a deleterious atmosphere, particularly among our West India Colonies, but when we come to examine facts, it turns out otherwise; the range of mortality, even among the *labouring* slave population, is about one

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in thirty-seven to forty, but in London and France it is equal, as regards the *whole* population, rich and poor, and in other countries it is even more; thus, in Naples, one in thirty-four; Wirtemberg, one in thirty-three; Paris, one in thirty-two; Berlin, one in thirty-four; Nice, one in thirty-one; Madrid, one in twenty-nine; Rome, one in twenty-five; Amsterdam, one in twenty-four; Vienna, one in twenty-two and a half! Thus that which is termed our most unhealthy West India Colony has, even as regards its working population, a greater duration of life than the rich and poor of some of the principal parts of Europe! On six years, ending 1832, the increase on 40,892 Creole population was 3678, or nine per cent. The following comparison will put this point more clearly[1]; in the Appendix to the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Factory Bill, it appears, that, in a number of 10,000 deaths in a healthy county (Rutland) under twenty years of age, 3756 died; under forty years of age 5031 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 4969. In London, under twenty years of age, 4580 died; under forty years of age, 6111 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 3889. In the town of Preston, under twenty years of age, 6083 died; under forty years of age, 7462 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 2538. In the town of Leeds, under twenty years of age, 6213 died; under forty years of age, 7441

[1] I am indebted to Mr. P. M. Stewart's valuable defence of the West India colonists, on the 30th of May, 1833, for these details.

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died; lived to forty years and upwards, 2559. In the town of Bolton, under twenty years of age, 6113 died; under forty years of age, 7459 died; lived to forty years and upwards, 2541. Contrast this with Demerara, where it appears, by the last registration, that the deaths during the triennial period, were 7016, of whom, died under twenty years of age, 1929; died under forty years of age, 3359; and 3657 lived to upwards of forty years of age. Supposing, then, the number of deaths to have been 10,000, instead of 7016, the result would be—died under twenty years of age, 2749; died under forty years of age, 4788; and lived to forty and upwards, 5212, being 243 in favour of the duration of life in the colony of Demerara, as compared with a healthy county (Rutland) in England, and a still greater and increasing difference in favour of the colony, as compared with the towns before mentioned.

In the hurricane months, when the Caribbee islands are ravaged with terrific tempests, vast masses of clouds, Pelion-like upon Ossa, advance towards the south; the mountains inland reverberate with pealing thunder, and the night is illumined with faint lightning coruscations; brief storms succeed; but, happily, the Barbadian hurricane is unfelt. The length of the day in Guiana is about thirteen hours. In the hot season, the thermometer ranges from 84° to 90°, on the coast, and, twenty miles inland, seldom exceeds 80°, during the warmest part of the day; falling at night to 60°, or even 50°. At the Portuguese fort of St. Joaquim, on the Rio Negro, (Lat. 3° N.

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Long. 62° W.) which was visited by Dr. Hancock, the thermometer ranges from 76 to 89 in April.

The following Meteorological Register, though noted at the Military Hospital at Demerara, may serve for the whole coast of British Guiana:—

MONTHS.	THERM.	WINDS.	REMARKS.
January ..	85° to 74°	E.	Cool and pleasant; refreshing breezes.
February .	86 - 76	N.E.	Clouds heavy, with occasional showers.
March ...	85 - 77	E.N.E.	Ditto, frequent ditto.
April	85 - 76	E.	Hot; no rains.
May	86 - 78	N.E.	Clouds heavy; frequent lightning.
June	83 - 75	S. and variable.	Hot, with occasional rains.
July	86 - 78	E. and S.	Sultry and oppressive.
August ...	89 - 77	S.	Hot; occasional rains.
September	87 - 77	S. and E.	Warm; thunder and lightning.
October ...	86 - 76	Variable.	Refreshing breezes; light showers.
N vember	85 - 77	N. and E.	Steady, exhilarating breezes; ditto.
December	78 - 75	N.N.E.	Heavy showers; strong winds; cool.

In considering the climate of tropical countries, the influence of the moon seems to be entirely overlooked; and surely, if the tides of the vast ocean are raised from their fathomless bed by lunar power, it is not too much to assert that the tides of the atmosphere are liable to a similar influence. This much is certain, that, in the low lands of tropical countries, no attentive observer of nature will fail to witness the power exercised by the moon over the seasons, and also over animal and vegetable nature. As regards the latter, it may be stated that there are certainly thirteen springs and thirteen autumns, in

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Demerara, in the year; for so many times does the sap of trees ascend to the branches and descend to the roots. For example, the wallaba (a resinous tree, common in the Demerara woods, somewhat resembling mahogany), if cut down in the dark, a few days before the *new moon*, is one of the most durable woods in the world for house-building, posts, &c.: in that state, attempt to split it, and, with the utmost difficulty, it will be riven in the most jagged, unequal manner that can be imagined; cut down another wallaba, that grew within a few yards of the former, at *full moon*, and the tree can be easily split into the finest smooth shingles, of any desired thickness, or into staves for making casks; but in this state, applied to house-building purposes, it speedily decays. Again, bamboos, as thick as a man's arm, are sometimes used for paling, &c.: if cut at the dark moon, they will endure for ten or twelve years; if at full moon, they will be rotten in two or three years: thus is it with most, if not all, the forest trees. Of the effects of the moon on animal life, very many instances could be cited. I have seen, in Africa, the newly littered young perish, in a few hours, at the mother's side, if exposed to the rays of the full moon. Fish become rapidly putrid; and meat, if left exposed, incurable or unpreservable by salt; the mariner, heedlessly sleeping on deck, becoming afflicted with nyctolopia, or night blindness; at times the face hideously swollen, if exposed during sleep to the moon's rays; the maniac's paroxysms renewed with fearful vigour at the full and change; and the cold damp chill of the ague

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supervening on the ascendancy of this apparently mild yet powerful luminary. Let her influence over this earth be studied; it is more powerful than is generally known.

According to Mr. Hillhouse, who has repeatedly visited the interior, the climate of the region inhabited by the Indians is much more salubrious than that of the coast; though approaching nearer to the line, its superior elevation causes a decrease of temperature, and the surface of the earth is always kept cool, from the thick shade of the forest with which it is universally covered.

It is a common observation, that the air of the rivers is unhealthy; but this only applies to that part of them which runs through the swamp land, and level with the sea-coast: here the exhalations and vapours accumulate, and the sea-breeze is not always sufficiently constant or powerful to dissipate them. Throughout the whole extent of the salt or brackish water fever and ague predominate; but, beyond the influx of the tide, the banks of the rivers are so proverbially healthy, that, were the population ten times more numerous than it is, there would be little employment for a physician.

As we approach the high sand-hills of the interior, the natural drainage is so perfect, and the torrents of fresh water supplied by the creeks form so strong a current, that all impurities are quickly drained from the valleys, and the surface water is instantly absorbed by the sands. The water of those creeks that are uniformly shaded from the sun is about five degrees colder than that of the river.

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The breadth of the river, by exposing a great surface to the influence of the sun, causes its increased temperature. During the night, therefore, which is seven or eight degrees cooler than the day, the water of the river becomes comparatively a warm bath; and the time of its lowest comparative temperature is about noon, when the heat of the air is greatest, and the river has not yet recovered the heat it lost during the night. Bathing, therefore, in the heat of the day is more bracing to the system; but bathing in the morning is most congenial to the feelings, as there is scarcely any difference between the temperature of the air and the water, for two hours after sunrise.

The evaporation in the neighbourhood of the line being supposed ten times greater than near the poles, the rains are, in proportion, much more heavy and frequent. In these regions vegetation would cease, were the supply of moisture only equal to that of temperate climates; and, upon the hills, where the water runs off more rapidly, a greater quantity of rain is required than in the valleys, where it stagnates, and is absorbed in superior proportion by the earth. We accordingly find that, upon the hills of the interior, the clouds discharge three times as much rain as falls upon the coast, and without causing any inconvenience. This disproportion between the rains of the coast and the interior would not be so great, but from the circumstance of the vast tract of low land, from which the forest has been cleared for cultivation. Woody countries are always the most humid; and in a plain, without

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trees, the clouds will pass over without discharging any rain, from the want of points of attraction. The importance of this fact has not hitherto met with sufficient consideration. A plain in the tropics, without rain to moisten it, soon becomes a sterile desert; and nothing will attract the electricity of the clouds, and cause them to burst, but the intervention of groups or rows of tall trees. It is a point, therefore, worthy the consideration of the colonial legislature, to preserve a portion of bush standing on the coast, for the attraction of the rains, or to oblige the different estates to plant tall fruit or forest trees on their side-lines; as there is no doubt that the more the country is cleared of bush, the drier it becomes, and the less fertile; and this more particularly with regard to the sugar cultivation.

In the interior, the direction of the winds is by no means so uniform as on the coast. From the month of April to July, they blow more from the south than from any other point; and these land winds, which occur at intervals throughout the year, by impeding the course of the clouds, as they are propelled by the sea breeze, are another cause of the increased rains.

From the superior salubrity of the climate, and the simple habits of the Indians, it is reasonable to suppose that, prior to the introduction of rum, they enjoyed great longevity. The native intoxicating beverages are so mild and diuretic, that little inconvenience results from their excesses with them; but their system of computation is so defective, that they

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can neither calculate their own age nor that of their offspring.

Early puberty is common in all hot latitudes; but it does not seem to shorten the period of existence, though the appearance of age comes on sooner. The Indian girls are marriageable at twelve or thirteen, and the boys at fifteen or sixteen; at twenty-five years the women lose all the appearance of youth, but the men at forty are not older in appearance than Europeans of the same age.

I agree with the surveyor of Demerara, that upon the whole there is no doubt, that if the hand of cultivation reached to the hills of the interior, and a few artificial improvements were added to the advantages of local situation, the climate of the Indians would be the most healthy and agreeable of any within the tropics—with fish, flesh, fowl, and vegetables in abundance, pure water, no fevers, and no mosquitoes.

CHAPTER III.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM OF BRITISH GUIANA, WITH A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF WEST INDIA TREES, FRUITS, &c.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—No part of the earth is richer in vegetation than Guiana. The most careless observer is struck with astonishment on beholding the magnificent forests and splendid verdure of the South American continent, where every variety of timber flourishes in inexhaustible profusion, and each

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dye and spice that ministers to commerce or health, scarcely requires the industry of man for its production. Those majestic trees, the wallaba, silvabali, bulletre, and purple heart, whose stems are straight and branchless for seventy feet, and then crowned with splendid foliage, are abundant in various parts of the colony; but, as the vegetation of all our West India possessions is pretty much alike, and the productions similar to those of the main land, I will here give a detail of the forest trees which, though prepared at first for the island of Dominica, may, with equal propriety, be given under the head of Guiana for the purpose of saving repetition. The commercial reader will perceive what an advantageous timber trade we may carry on with our West India colonies, if the import duty be reduced, or, as I hope, finally removed from colonial timber. The timber of British Guiana is extremely valuable for ship-building. Among the numerous varieties of wood, may be mentioned the *Mora* (mimosa), equal to East India teak, and superior to oak,—it is not subject to dry-rot; the green heart, a very fine-grained hard wood; the purple heart, also possessing the same qualities; the white cedar; and the locust, or coubarre, &c. The following is a description of the different sorts of timber trees, shrubs, plants, &c. natural to our West India possessions, with their qualities, and the purposes for which they are best adapted.

The *Black Cinnamon* is generally found about fifty feet in height and two feet in diameter, and delighting in arid and barren soils. The leaves are about

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the size of those of the orange tree, which they also resemble in fragrance. When fresh cut, the wood is of a deep blood red, but in time becomes quite black; it is very durable, takes a fine polish, and, from its hardness and smoothness of surface, peculiarly adapted for mill cogs, wheels, and other purposes, where its great weight is not an objection.

There is an inferior sort, called the *White Cinnamon* (from its wood being of a lighter colour), only valuable for its leaves and berries, which possess an aromatic pungent smell and a powerful spicy quality: it is esteemed an excellent substitute for the East India cinnamon.

The *Acoucoa* generally grows very crooked, seldom exceeding eight or ten inches in diameter, and is chiefly made use of for posts; for which purpose, on account of its extreme durability, it is valuable,—most other West India woods decaying quickly when exposed to moisture.

The *Locust tree* is often found eight or nine feet in diameter, and upwards of seventy feet in height: branches begin to spread in the highest parts of the tree; very full of leaves of an oval shape, and a dark green colour, about three inches in length; blossoms of the papilonaceous form, with a long flat pod, shaped like the husk of a broad bean, about four inches long, of a strong texture, and a dark brown colour when ripe, containing three beans of the same colour, which are of a farinaceous consistence, and of a pleasant sweetness. The wood a rich brown, intermixed with dark veins like marble, and takes a beautiful polish, for which reason it is chiefly used for the manufac-

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ture of furniture and articles of taste. Very strong and durable, and therefore employed with advantage for rollers in sugar mills, &c.

The *Letter wood*, of a beautiful brown colour, mixed with black spots, bearing some resemblance to hieroglyphics, or letters (from which circumstance it derives its name), is chiefly made use of for walking canes, segar tubes, and other small articles. As the fine part of the wood is taken from the heart of the tree, which is seldom more than twelve inches in circumference, it is not available for work of any size, and therefore confined almost exclusively to the before-mentioned purposes:—about twenty feet in height; leaves narrow and pointed; flower pentapetalous, of a purple colour, and succeeded by a red berry.

The *Ironwood tree*—height about fifty feet, and six in circumference; bark, of a whitish grey; leaves, light green, three inches in length; flowers white, with red berries.

The *Bollo* or *Bully tree*, about fifty feet in height, and six in diameter, covered with a smooth bark of a grey colour; branches, which grow near the top of the tree, are commonly cut into shingles for covering buildings, being particularly compact and durable (resisting even wet); and therefore very well adapted for house timber, and other purposes, where but few woods would be found answerable. Leaves long, narrow towards the foot stalk; flower pentapetalous, of a beautiful purple colour, and succeeded by blue berries.

The *Purple Heart tree*, so called from the beautiful

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colour of its wood when dry: sixty feet in height, and two in diameter; branches, like those of the preceding, grow very near the top of the tree; leaves, of a dark green colour, four inches in diameter; blossoms of a deep red, pentapetalous, and succeeded by red berries, which contain the seeds. Wood, mostly used for furniture when new, on account of its durability, as well as beauty of colour; but as it gets old the colour darkens, so that at last it becomes as black as ebony.

The *Green Heart tree* derives its name from its colour, and grows about the same size; much esteemed for its durability, being of a close grain, very hard, and peculiarly adapted for ships' planking. It possesses the singular property of changing its foliage twice a year: flowers are of a yellowish white, tetrapetalous, and succeeded by a small farinaceous fruit, of which the Indians sometimes make bread, but of a very insipid taste.

The *Cope tree*, about forty feet high, and eight in circumference, divided into many branches, plentifully supplied with leaves about two inches in length, and of a light green colour. Bark, light grey or ash colour, of a rough texture; wood light, and easy to work, and chiefly employed for the manufacture of domestic furniture.

The *Silk Cotton tree* grows to the height of 100 feet, and twelve or fourteen in diameter, and is very much sought after by the Indians to make their largest canoes. Its roots spread along, on the surface of the ground, to the distance of from ten to fifteen feet; trunk covered with a thick, ash-coloured bark, set

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with short sharp prickles; the branches, which do not begin to grow nearer to the ground than sixty feet, are full of oblong leaves about seven inches long. The blossom appears only once in three years, and consists of a green calyx, with five white folliculi, and the petals, with five stamina, are succeeded by a bud, containing a fine silky cotton, of a light grey colour, being of too short a texture for the manufactories, it is made use of for stuffing mattresses, &c. The humming birds use it to line their nests with.

The *Palisade tree*, the smallest species of palm, is principally used by the negroes for the side walls of their huts, or split into staves; the stalk being small upon which the seeds grow, is also used by them as a broom. Height, twelve or fifteen feet, and eight or nine inches in diameter, and producing a very fine cabbage.

The *Troolies* are chiefly employed for covering the roofs of buildings in the country. They are large leaves, twenty feet long, and two broad, of a strong texture, and straight fibres; growing from a small fibrous root, from which arise eight or ten stems, each producing a leaf of the above dimensions. Very durable and well calculated for the above purpose.

The *Bois*[1] *Pian*—very good wood for house frames and sills, for which it is much used. Shingles made from it will last nearly as long as the best cypress: often found fifty feet in height, even when the dia-

[1] French words in this description are accounted for by a part of it being drawn up for Dominica.

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meter does not exceed a foot, which seldom extends to more than eighteen inches. The immense length renders it so springy, especially if sawed when green, that the process of sawing is very seldom attended with success, if adopted.

The *Bois Riviere*—seldom found far from the borders of rivers or streams, and generally on their edge; of very rapid growth, with roots running superficially. Heavy when green, but comparatively light when dry, in consequence of its parting with so much of its moisture. It splits freely, and therefore is not fit to be used where timber of a tough grain is required. It is so tenacious of a nail that has entered without splitting it, that it is almost impossible to draw it, especially if left in the wood any length of time. It saws very smoothly, and will make good boards for many purposes.

Lauriere Caca, so called from its leaves resembling the laurel, is a very useful wood for various purposes, particularly for boards, being tolerably durable; or for flooring, sides of houses, &c. Height, forty or fifty feet; diameter, about eighteen inches, but seldom more than two feet. The wood has a very unpleasant smell, especially about the knotty parts, very like that of *stercum*; it goes off, however, as it dries, and is imperceptible when completely seasoned.

Bois Perdrix or *Sicard* is only found near the sea. It bears a large yellow plum of a sweet and sickly taste, and but seldom eaten by a refined palate, although not hurtful.

Olivier, so called from its resemblance to the olive

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tree, is a very useful timber, and tolerably durable. It burns with difficulty, and is therefore often used for shingles, to cover roofs near chimneys, or otherwise contiguous to the fire.

The *Contrevint* is tall and straight, the timber likely to decay in damp places, but sometimes used for beams, being very stiff and strong, but not durable. It makes good fire-wood.

Sea-side Grape (*Cocolaba*) is never found except near the sea-shore. The timber is very durable in every situation, and very heavy, but always so crooked that it can seldom be used in any valuable work. It bears a berry about the bigness of an olive, but quite round, of a beautiful damson colour, with a delicate down upon it; very juicy and delicious, and much resembling the real grape in taste. The pulp which covers the kernel is the only eatable part, and does not exceed the eighth or sixteenth of an inch in thickness. The kernel has the appearance of the walnut, but is of a harsh, astringent taste, and is totally unfit for use. The fruit grows in long bunches, very much like the grape. It bears an immense quantity when in favourable situations: the leaves are large and nearly round, smooth and thick.

The *Bois Diable* is a native of the poorest, cold, and clayey soils and ridges. Grows to a great height, but never exceeds from two to three feet in diameter. Its shape is regular and straight, but unfortunately the timber is of the worst kind, and unfit for everything but fire-wood, which it is peculiarly adapted for, as it burns extremely fierce, even when green, and lasts longer than any other wood for that pur-

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pose. It is of a deep blood red, and very hard; whether it derived its name from the latter quality, or its igneous property, is a question of very little importance, but it is most undoubtedly *devilishly* hard and hot. Bark thick, and of a very dark-green colour, with small white specks on little rigid eminences; leaves small and pointed.

The *Sour Orange tree* is too well known to need description. The fruit is no less so, though perhaps not so much esteemed as it deserves. Independently of the common purposes for which it is used as an acid, it makes an excellent cooling beverage in fevers, particularly of the putrid kind, and unites with that quality those also of being both laxative and sudorific. The rind contains an extremely aromatic and inflammable oil, and when squeezed before the fire flashes like gunpowder; chipped small it is an excellent ingredient for puddings and confectionaries, and in the compositions of stomachic bitters.

Grigris, very much in appearance like the Olivier, but very much inferior in quality, although it makes good beams, and lasts a long time if not exposed to moisture. The greatest objection to it is its liability to warp and spring, although seasoned ever so long. It is of a dark lead colour.

The *Boisseladame* varies in height from forty to sixty feet, and is about two feet six in diameter. The timber, though not particularly valuable, makes very good boards for various purposes. It is when new of a dull rose colour, and smells something like musk; the leaves are rather larger than a man's hand, and the bark approaches to orange colour.

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Boisfourmi.—The ramiers, or wild pigeons, are very fond of the berries of this tree. It is of little value as a timber, growing crooked, ramifying very much, and is generally covered over with tubercles, which afford shelter to the ants, with which this tree abounds; from this cause the name is derived.

The *Bois Jaune* derives its name from the colour of the wood, which is of a pale bright yellow when fresh cut. Although not of a very close texture it is useful for posts, which will remain sound ten or twelve years; and is also much used for oars, being light, straight, and elastic, and not cross grained.

The *White Cedar* (a Bignomia) is usually found near the sea shore, and when growing on an island thrives better to windward than to leeward, evidently on account of its receiving more of the saline particles in these situations. It is principally used for ship and boat building, especially for timbers, which it affords of all degrees of curvature, and in greater abundance than any other tree in this climate. It is also sawed into boards for planking vessels, being valuable for that purpose as it lasts a long while in the sea water, but decays soon in fresh water or damp situations. It shrinks less in drying than any other wood, and consequently swells less, which is a most favourable quality for the above-mentioned use. Very light when young, but brittle and almost useless when full grown, tough and cross grained. Grows very crooked, and much ribbed in the trunk, especially near the root, which renders it difficult to get boards of any length out of it. Leaves oval, with three strong ribs, about six or eight inches long, when the

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tree is of luxuriant growth, and about five or six wide, but in general much less. In the months of June and July it bears a bell-flower, of a pale violet colour, with small yellow antheræ, becoming yellowish toward the stem, and slightly odoriferous. Flower succeeded by a long slender pod, containing some hundred seeds, which are very small and flat, lying close together, and much resembling parsnip seed. Pod about six inches long; a large tree will bear several thousands of them. The tree grows very rapidly, and stands to a great age. The colour of the wood darkens as the age of the tree increases.

The *Bois Anglois* is seldom found above a foot in diameter, and not lofty. Stem round and smooth; branches growing by regular stages and nearly horizontal, but slightly inclining upwards. This wood has a strong smell of musk, is very pliant, and much used for oars, staves, &c.

The *Bois Côte*, so called from its growing longitudinally ribbed throughout, is made use of for ordinary buildings as rafters or plates; two or three feet in diameter, and lofty for its size.

The *Gommier* derives its name from the gum, which exudes from it in great abundance, and is a very useful article to the inhabitants for various purposes. When fresh from the tree it is quite soft and sticky, but becomes hard and brittle by exposure. It burns fiercely, and is much used for torches, especially by the negroes to search by night for crapeaux [1], which during the day remain silent and confined to their

[1] The West Indian French love frogs as well as the Parisians.

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holes, from whence they issue at night, and by their croaking, guide the frog hunters to their abodes. The gum is a good substitute for tar when mixed with grease, although not equal to the resin from the fir tree, as it is apt to scale off sooner. It has an aromatic smell, but the smoke, which it yields in abundance, blackens every thing near, even the nostrils of those who inhale it; it is not, however, injurious to health. The wood is principally used for making canoes, on account of the singular property it possesses of expanding by heat; and is occasionally employed for other purposes, but principally for the former. The stem of the tree is generally round and straight, and is usually found about sixty feet in height, and twelve in circumference.

The *Chatanier Grand feuille* derives its name from the resemblance it bears to the chestnut tree. The shape of the stump is very remarkable, as it shoots out very wide and thin ribs, which begin to spread out at the height of eight or ten feet and upwards, according to the size of the tree; so that a full-grown tree will sometimes spread its ribs at the surface of the ground, so as to extend to one hundred and twenty feet in circumference, although the stem, where the ribs begin to diverge, may not be more than three feet in diameter, which, in fact, they seldom exceed. It is extremely lofty; leaves very large, of an oval shape, from twelve to eighteen inches long, and from eight to fourteen broad; wood very heavy, and held in little estimation. It is a native of low and rich soils. There is a smaller and inferior

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specimen of this tree found in high, ridgy, and poor soils.

The *Poix Doux* is of little value for its timber, being of an irregular shape, very small, and the branches beginning near the surface of the ground, and having, therefore, scarcely any stem. Wood of inferior quality, but extremely valuable as a fence to the coffee bushes, to which plant it is particularly congenial. The careful coffee planter plants them very near, with no greater interval than six or eight rows of coffee trees between them. The fences are planted both up and down, and horizontally, on the sides of the hills, (in Dominica,) forming squares, like a chess board, and looking very beautiful in a well cultivated and fruitful coffee estate. These fences are generally lopped and trimmed alternately every other year, leaving the intermediate fence as a protection until the last cut one can acquire strength to shelter the coffee bushes. These dismembered branches and leaves are considered very useful as a manure to prevent the growth of grass. It is of quick growth, and suffers no injury from these repeated croppings. It is remarkable that the coffee trees which grow nearest to the Poix Doux are always the finest, and outlive by many years those that are at a distance; indeed, it may be called the patron of the coffee tree [1].

[1] The French manuscript, whence a great part of this description is derived, is vague and wanting in botanical accuracy; but the reader, especially the West Indian, will most probably agree with me, that the information it conveys compensates for imperfectness in literary or scientific composition.

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Branda.—Mostly used for beams and stanchions, and answers very well for that purpose when it is not much exposed. It springs a great deal when sawed green, grows tall and straight, and seldom exceeds two feet in diameter.

Bois Sept Ans, so called, it is presumed, from its duration not exceeding seven years, and that too must be under favourable circumstances. It is seldom otherwise used than by being sawed into boards for the most common purposes. It answers very well as heading for sugar casks, and is light and porous, and therefore evidently unfit for durability. Being common, and easily worked, it is often resorted to where better kinds cannot be had, or are too expensive. It has a moderately large leaf, and grows in superficial soil.

Bois Violon.—It is difficult to give a sufficient reason for its being so called, unless its great levity may be considered so. Generally straight and tall, and about twenty or twenty-four inches in diameter. It is frequently made use of for masts for small vessels; but is incapable of bearing any great strain. Bark of a very dark colour outside, stripe off freely, and sometimes serves for tying bundles. Wood of a pale yellow, and smells, when green, exactly like the copaiva juice so much esteemed in medicine; it may probably be a species of the tree from which that liquid gum is extracted.

Bois Frai is a very singular tree, being hollow, with thin partitions at intervals of from three to four or five inches distance; the inner part with a thin integument, that hardens as the tree approaches to

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maturity: therefore, by the time the tree has arrived at its full growth, the hollowness almost disappears. From this hollowness it evidently derives its name. The wood is extremely light, which, added to these vacancies, renders it peculiarly useful to suspend any heavy substance in the water; it grows from thirty to forty feet in height, with uncouth straggling branches. Dr. Hancock considers this tree as the Palo de Cruz [1] of the Essequibo and Careni, and he termed it *Brownea endecandria*, from the rare circumstance of its being furnished with *eleven* stamina. It is also called *rosa* montania, from its lovely bunches of scarlet flowers. The young leaves grow in a very curious manner: before they expand, they are enclosed in a sheath, or spatha; when this bursts, the young leaf expands by degrees, of a beautiful pink colour inside, and white outside, which after being exposed to the rays of light, gradually becomes green. Some botanists have denied buds to tropical plants; this spathose leaf is a very singular exception to the rule; with more numerous and deeper sinuosities than the vine leaf, they are nearly circular, each ray or division growing from six to ten inches from the leaf or stem; consequently the entire diameter, from point to point, is sixteen inches, but generally considerably less. The interior integument before mentioned, is rather pulpy in the young and tender branches, and in that state is used as a styptic to staunch the bleeding of fresh wounds, &c. The In-

[1] It is called *Palo de Cruz*, because on cutting a branch we perceive two lines crossing each other at right angles.

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dians relate the most extraordinary accounts of its efficacy in stopping hemorrhage. The outside of the young branches is green; but the bark turns white afterwards, as does the under part of the leaf, which causes the tree to present a beautiful appearance from the contrast it displays with the verdure of other trees.

Laurier Blanc is a species of the laurier [1], of a white colour, from which boards are produced, of middling quality, for ordinary purposes; thirty feet in height, and twenty inches in diameter. Outer bark of a deep green, stained with whitish spots as large as the hand.

Mahaut Cochon, a native of moist and fresh soils, sixty or seventy feet in height, and from three to four in diameter. Leaf large, with sinuosities, but not deeply indented. It is very abundant, and much used for ordinary buildings, staves for sugar casks, shingles, &c. for which it is well adapted, as it splits free, is easily worked, light, and porous.

Rose Mahaut is a straggling tree, which never rises high; but the branches, as they become heavy, drop down to the ground by degrees, when they take root and shoot out other branches. The young saplings, before they become too strong, are cut down and stript of the bark, which is very useful for common ropes; it is moderately strong, and if the ropes are well manufactured and kept dry, they will last a long time. Leaf round, six or eight inches in diameter, of a deep green colour on the outer side, and

[1] Vide p. 46.

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of a whitish tint underneath; it is found near running streams of fresh water, or on the sea-shore.

Bara Bara, about twenty inches in diameter, and proportionally lofty, *i. e.* twenty or thirty feet high; wood very light and brittle. It bears an apple about the size of an English pippin, of a poisonous quality, which the Caribbean Indians use for poisoning fish, which latter do not, however, prove injurious to those who eat them[1].

Savonette, so called from its forming a lather with water, in the same manner with soap. The tree grows to a great size, but has a very small leaf, resembling the leaf of the Cassia Fistula. Wood used for shingles, and boards for ordinary purposes; it has a strong smell of garlic when fresh cut.

Galba or *Calba* grows to the height of from twenty to twenty-five feet, and about fourteen or sixteen in diameter; leaf small and thick; wood is principally used for fences, posts, &c.

Bois d'Ail, so called from its strong smell of garlic. It grows tall and straight, and about twelve inches in diameter; leaf long and narrow; timber sometimes used for common roofs.

Boistan.—The bark of this tree is much used for tanning leather, from which the tree derives its name. It grows tall, straight, and about two feet in diameter, and is generally found in steep and craggy places; wood tough; commonly used for boards, cart-wheel naves, and other ordinary purposes; when

[1] The name of this tree, as well as of every other, when the same syllable is repeated, is Charib.

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full grown, the colour is of a deep red or blood-colour; bark very thick, and of the same colour inside.

Pommier, a soft light wood, very similar to the Gommier[1], but of inferior quality, although occasionally used by the Caribs for canoes; leaf about the size of a man's hand, and of an oval shape.

Mangle or *Mangrove*[2], a tree of singular structure, as it shoots fresh roots as it grows, which, when the tree is at its full age, may be found six or eight feet from the ground; to which they gradually tend in regular succession; timber very heavy, of a free grain, and employed principally for the manufacture of fishing-rods, walking-sticks, arrows, and other light purposes; leaf very thick and stiff, and about eight inches long and nine wide. The tree seldom attains more than a foot in diameter, and fifteen or twenty feet in height. The leaves and bark yield a thick juice, which is very viscid, and of a yellow colour.

Bois Blanc, derives its name from the colour of its wood; grows to a good size (about thirty inches in diameter,) lofty and straight, of a free grain, and used principally for boards for ordinary purposes: although not durable, it is less likely to be worm-eaten than most of the soft woods, on account of its extreme bitterness, for which quality the bark may be used in the same manner as that of the Angelin,

[1] Vide p. 50.

[2] Skirts the whole sea-coast of Guiana, and most low tropical shores.

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and with less danger, as not so powerful as the former.

Bois Glue, so called from the gluey juice that exudes from the bark, on an incision being made in it. This juice thickens when exposed to the air, and is much used for bird-lime, which is, with the exception of firewood, the sole benefit derived from the tree. It grows tall and straight, and of a moderate size; leaf six or eight inches long and two wide.

Bois Flat, or *Corkwood*, thus called from its very buoyant qualities, and therefore available for fishermen's floats, turtle trammels, fish-pots, &c. It is also employed for rafts to convey heavy timber by water; usually found about thirty feet in height, and twelve or fourteen inches in diameter; leaves rough and round, about twelve inches across; bark white, strips off with facility, but has no strength. It has but few branches, which grow in a wild straggling manner; pith, when dry, very light and elastic, and may be pressed into a quarter of its original size, but upon the pressure being removed, it assumes its former shape and size.

Mastich.—The timber of this tree is more durable than that of any before mentioned, but it is rather scarce. It is of a brownish yellow colour, very close grained, and heavy; valuable for shafts, and other parts of a water-wheel, as it will resist moisture better than any other wood. It has an oily appearance, and will take a very fine polish. When decaying, it very slowly begins to be affected externally, so that after taking a part out of the ground half eaten

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through, the remainder will be as sound as the first day it was put in, seeming to wear away instead of rotting like other woods. There is also an inferior sort called the white mastich.

Guava (*Psidum fructicosum*).—The fruit of this tree, which is common everywhere in the West Indies, is justly esteemed as very agreeable, especially when preserved, or made into marmalade; wood tough, and used mostly for cattle crooks. The seeds of the fruit are considered a restringent medicine in some fluxes.

The foregoing detail demonstrates, as I before said, what a valuable timber trade may be carried on with our West India possessions; every one of the trees just mentioned might be adapted to a variety of useful purposes in England. Before quitting this subject, a few more specimens of the vegetable kingdom of the Western hemisphere may be mentioned.

The *Agniero*, a species of palm, has the stem and branches covered with sharp ebony-like spines, six inches long; it produces a fruit the size of a walnut, consisting of a slimy substance; the stone resembles a diminutive cocoa-nut, and being susceptible of a high polish, is cut into rings as ornaments for the Indians' wives and children; the outer rind is sweet and pleasant, when chewed for some time.

The *Assery* fruit grows on a species of vine which creeps up the branches of trees; it is about the size of a large gooseberry, and is of a delicious flavour of sweet and acid resembling lemonade.

One of the most valuable roots in tropical countries is the *Cassada*, which grows to about four feet in

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height, covered with an ash-coloured bark, dividing near its top into several green branches, from which spring large leaves, supported by a red stalk. The root, when cut, is in substance like a coarse potato, the bitter species whereof is a rank poison[1] until exposed to the action of the fire. The Indians manufacture bread from this root, and also a drink called *piworrie*. The process observed for the former is as follows:—the root is first grated, by means of a large board stuck full of small sharp pebbles, against which they rub it; the pulp is put into a long elastic tube, made of basket-work, about seven feet long, though not above three inches in diameter, and closed at the bottom. This is crammed full of the grated cassada root, which causes it to shrink or contract; they then extract the juice by suspending it to a beam, and by means of a heavy weight attached to the end of it the machine is pulled out to its former size, and the poisonous juice, forced through the interstices, falls into a calabash placed underneath to receive it. This juice often proves fatal to birds and animals who drink of it. The root, after being thus squeezed and dried in the sun, is grated, and then sifted through a basket-work machine constructed for the purpose; and finally made into small thin flat cakes, which are of an insipid taste when dry, but if eaten with fresh butter, palatable. The expressed juice not only becomes innoxious when well boiled, but it forms the principal ingredient in the celebrated

[1] There are two species, a sweet and bitter Cassava or Cassada; it is the latter which is poisonous until cooked.

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pepper-pot of the colonists. Tapioca is the farina of the Cassava, and well known as a light, pleasant, and nutritive diet for invalids.

The *Heriheri*, a large and majestic tree, furnishes the Indians with an excellent material for kindling a fire. Taking two pieces of this tree, they cut a notch in one, and placing the other perpendicularly into the notch so made, by rubbing it round and round between their hands for a few seconds, the friction causes it to ignite; they then light the maroon, which is a species of moss produced from the *behersda*, and collected by the ants from its leaves to form their nests with. The *Maan* tree produces a gum which, when boiled, makes excellent tapers; before boiling it is very hard, and called *carimaan*. Another tree, called *Dali*, bears a berry from which wax is extracted.

The *Silk Grass Shrub*, called by the Indians curra, bears some resemblance to the aloe, but is much smaller; its leaves rise in clusters immediately from the root, five feet in length, with indented edges, protracted into prickly points. The inner substance of the leaf consists of a number of small strong white fibres, running longitudinally, which the Indians extract by means of a small loop of cord fastened to a post, through which the leaf is drawn with a jerking motion; this takes off the outer green substance, and leaves the fibres ready for twisting into cord, which is done after drying in the sun. When the cord is made, which the Indians do with remarkable neatness, it makes excellent bow strings, as it possesses extraordinary elasticity and strength.

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The *Hiary* (with which the Indians intoxicate fish) is a plant of the papilonacea order, bearing a small quantity of bluish blossoms, which produce pods about two inches long, less in the leaf than a goose quill, and enclosing about ten small grey leaves; leaf nine inches long, central stem with four spear-pointed leaflets on each side, two inches long, and one at the apex: root, when full grown, three inches in diameter, containing a gummy, milky juice, which is a powerful narcotic, and prepared by the Indians for fishing, by beating with sticks until reduced to a mass like coarse hemp: the Hiary root is then employed to saturate a corial (canoe) full of water until it is of a milky whiteness, then conveyed to the selected fishing spot, and the water sprinkled with the infusion (a solid cubic foot of the root will poison an acre of water surface), in about twenty minutes every fish within its influence rises to the surface, and is either taken by the hand or shot with arrows, neither deteriorated in quality nor tainting more rapidly than when hooked.

The *Cockarito Palm* usually grows to the height of fifty feet, and produces the most delicate cabbage of all the palm species. The cabbage is found in the very heart of the tree, at its summit, enclosed in a green husk, which is peeled off in strata, until the white cabbage or inner leaves appear in long, thin, white flakes, and are in taste much like the kernel of a nut; the heart, or centre of it, is the most delicate, and, being sweet and crisp, is frequently used as a salad; the outside, when boiled and eaten with butter and salt, is far preferable to an European

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cabbage. There is a worm or maggot natural to this tree which is reckoned a great delicacy in the West Indies. It is the larva of a black beetle (*Urculio*), and grows to the length of four inches, and as thick as a man's thumb; it is called Grogro, and, although disgusting in appearance, when well dressed furnishes a delicious treat, partaking, it is thought, of the flavour of all the spices of the East. Grogros are only to be found on such cabbages as are in a state of decay. The bark of this tree, on account of its hardness, is used by the Indians for the manufacture of their poisoned arrows. They are generally cut twelve inches long, with one end sharpened to a point, which is dipped into the poison of the *wouralie*, so called, from the nebe, or bushrope, which forms the principal ingredient in its composition. The other end is wrapped round with a small piece of cotton, adapted to the cavity of a long hollow reed (usually about nine feet long), into which the arrow is inserted, and by one blast of the breath it is discharged with extraordinary swiftness and unerring aim, carrying inevitable death to the person or animal wounded by it.

The *Plantain tree* (whose fruit forms so large a portion of the food of the negroes and labouring population,) grows from the height of sixteen to twenty feet, throwing out its leaves from the top of the stem, somewhat in the form of an umbrella. They are like rich satin, of a shining sea-green till fading, when they hang down in tatters, as their places are supplied by the young shoots, which open and expand from the top. From the centre of these

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grows a strong stalk, about three feet in length, that bends downwards with the weight of its purple head, which exactly resembles a calf's heart, and on this stalk the plantains grow, in considerable numbers, forming one large bunch, of which each tree bears no more than one at a time. When boiled or roasted the plantain is a good substitute for potatoes, and when ripe, a delicious and nutritive dessert.

The *Cariaca*, or *Maize de dos meses*, hitherto but little known in Europe, is a sweet and profitable corn, which in the short space of two months from the time of sowing, yields ripe grain. It is not certain whether this plant is a distinct species, or only a variety of the common Indian corn: but it is in every respect more diminutive, being very slender in its stalk, and with the leaves and ears also small in comparison with the former.

The flavour of the Cariaca is very fine, roasted in the milk, *i. e.* before the kernel is dry, when it is very soft and juicy; indeed, it is usually prepared in this way, and seldom permitted to arrive at maturity. The natives sometimes crush, and bake it, and it makes a nutritious, juicy sort of bread, which they call Cachapo. It is also very often roasted or parched by them in the following manner:—an iron pot is filled with sand, and set on the fire till the sand is nearly red hot, when two or three pounds of the grain are thrown in, and stirred up with the sand: the latter throws up the grain, which bursts and yields a white substance of twice its size before undergoing the process, which is separated from the sand by a wire sieve; the latter is then returned

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into the pot, to be heated up again for the same operation. The flour of maize, mixed with wheat, makes sweeter and more agreeable bread than that of wheat alone.

The *Tayes*, a root growing about eighteen inches high, and a foot in diameter, is much used for food among the negroes; the white inhabitants likewise boil the young sprouts in broth. The root is very productive, and forms the chief food of numerous domestic animals.

Of the fruit trees of British Guiana, the following are celebrated for their delicate flavoured products, or medicinal qualities:—

The *Hyahya tree*, is of the species of sapotacea, many of which furnish excellent fruit, and some of them are extremely valuable as timber. The whole of this numerous class contain, in a greater or less degree, a milky juice, and, in all probability, the Hyahya will be found identical (or a very near species) with the Cow tree (Palo de vaca) of Venezuela. It bears a small eatable yellow fruit, of an oblong shape; the leaves are oval, rigid, and lactescent on being broken. It yields abundantly a milky fluid, of a sweetish and rather pleasant taste, also a resinous and albuminous matter, or kind of elastic gum or caoutchouc. The tree grows tall, and proportionate in size, but the timber is not reckoned valuable.

The *Star Cherry* is of such size and form as if four European cherries were compressed into one, each division having a stone; the pulp is enclosed within a clear, tender, red skin, of a very agreeable taste,

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somewhat between sweet and sour, with a slight aromatic flavour. There is another cherry peculiar to the country, resembling very nearly the European, but not nearly so fine in flavour, and but little valued, except for conserves, &c. The former tree, it has been asserted, produces fruit every three months.

The *Missel* or *Medlar*, is a high growing bush, with small pointed dark leaves, producing fruit about the size of an olive, and in form like the hip of the wild rose, and of the same colour when ripe, but containing no hard stone; tastes very much like raspberry cream; it is very delicate and will not keep long.

The *Marcuses* grow on a high shrub, with strongly furrowed leaves, sharp pointed, and of a light green colour; the blossoms have some resemblance to the passion flower. The fruit, when ripe, is of a dark yellow, and shaped like a lemon, and when cut through the middle and mixed with wine and sugar, forms a delightful jelly, which is much esteemed. There is another sort, but of an inferior quality.

The *Guava tree* rises in Guiana about eighteen feet, the leaves rough, running to a point, and of a dark green colour; blossoms white, fruit green, at first but changing to a light yellow, and about the size of a russeting apple, which it also resembles in shape; pulp soft, of a red colour, and intermixed with very small hard seeds, taste, a pleasant sub-acid, and forming a rich marmalade.

The *Pappaw tree*, male and female. The male tree may be easily distinguished by the foot-stalks on

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which the blossoms stand, being about two feet six inches in length, and by its bearing no fruit. The female grows about fifteen feet high, and eight in diameter; its trunk or stem is soft, green and hollow, and the interior part pithy, like the palm; the leaves are about three feet in circumference, and have some resemblance to those of the fig tree, but are stronger and more pointed; they are supported by long green stalks, rising in clusters from the highest part of the tree, and are seldom more than fifteen in number. The blossoms, which are of a pale yellow, are pentapetalous flowers, very fragrant, and much used for confectionery. These blossoms are succeeded by a fruit about six inches in length, of an oval form, which, when full ripe, is of a bright yellow, but it is generally gathered while green, and after extracting the caustic milky juice it contains, it is boiled and served up to table as a vegetable, or made, with sugar, into preserves. The seeds, when boiled, have been reckoned a good antiscorbutic, and resemble the salad we term 'mustard and cress.'

The *Cannelle*, or *Cinnamon Apple tree*, bears a fruit about the size of a turkey's egg, and of the shape of a pine cone, which, when ripe, is of a beautiful violet colour, and tastes like very rich cream, flavoured with cinnamon.

The *Marmalade tree fruit*, is of a globular form, about the size of an apricot, has a strong skin, and is of a yellowish brown when ripe; and when the fruit is divided in the middle, the soft pulp (of a deep red colour) is equal to the best marmalade.

The *Moupee*, which is very much like the European

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plum tree, bears a fruit of a dark orange colour, of the shape of an olive, though much larger, which encloses a stone having an acid taste and fragrant smell.

The *Marippa*, a species of palm, has fruit as large as an apricot, but rounder in shape, and of an orange colour; it contains a large hard stone, which changes to a jet black; of this the negroes make rings. The fruit is not much esteemed, but a good oil is made from the kernel.

The *Simaruba tree* has a pleasant bitter taste, and is esteemed a specific against the dysentery, as well as an excellent stimulating medicine. The tree bears a resemblance to the European apple tree; but the blossom is of a violet colour, and has a sharp unpleasant smell. The fruit, about the size of an English pippin, is of a blood red, and divided into partitions, like a walnut.

The *Physic nut* shrub grows about six feet high, with a slender knotted stem; the leaves, arising from the top of the branches, are slightly indented, and of an oval shape; blossom, red; nut, thin-shelled; kernel, about the size of a filbert, divided into four parts by a thin white skin which has no taste, but, if not peeled off, will occasion a strong purging, and, if a sufficient quantity be eaten, a violent vomiting.

The *Castor oil bush*, or *palma christi*, is about the same height as the before-mentioned shrub; the stalks jointed, and the branches covered with leaves about eighteen inches in circumference, forming eight or ten sharp-pointed divisions, spreading out

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in different directions. The flowers contain yellow stamina; the nut is enclosed in a triangular-formed husk, of a dark brown colour, and covered with a light fur, of the same colour as the husk. It has been said there were two sorts of this tree; but the only difference between them, is the colour of the stem—one being green, the other of a dirty reddish colour: their properties are exactly similar, both producing oil of a highly medicinal quality.

The *Quassia* root, whose stomachic qualities are too well known to need description, was first discovered by a negro, whose name it still bears. It is of a strong bitter, and an excellent remedy against the intermitting fever; but must be made use of with extreme caution, as frequently, if too great a quantity be administered, it enervates the system, and renders the patient liable to paralytic disorders.

The *Ipecacuanha* bush grows about two feet high, with large smooth leaves pointed at the end; blossoms of a red colour; fruit, oblong and pointed in shape, about two inches in length, is enclosed in a smooth green husk, containing a number of small flat seeds, of a brown colour, joined by a fine silky filament. A wild kind of cinnamon has been met with on the mountains of Rippanonie and Parimma. It is called by the Caribbees, wabaima, and by the Portuguese, casca preciosa. It grows to a very large tree, having a sweet aromatic bark. The natives represent its wood as being very durable.

Dr. Hancock, to whom I am indebted for many valuable facts relative to Guiana, says—'No soil can be more congenial for the produce of dates, figs, and

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grapes of superior quality, as proved by the Friars of Carony; as well as for the various aromatics and spiceries, such as the nutmeg, cloves, and cinnamon. This is the natural soil of the odoriferous vanilla, which has been taken to Martinique and sold at fourteen dollars the pound. Dyeing woods, cochineal, wild honey, gum copal, &c. abound in the forests, besides a multitude of treasures unknown to Europeans.

'Many of our most valuable and expensive medicines, moreover, could be produced here with facility; as opium and ipecacuanha, which would give a quick return. The more humid parts would likewise produce the invaluable Sarsa de Rio Negro (*Smilax syphilitica*), which doubtless, with a little research, might be found growing wild.

'It is not improbable that some of the more febrifuge species of cinchona (Peruvian bark tree) would be found on the mountain Mackerapan, or others of the elevated range of Parime. But, whether found indigenous or not, this would afford a proper soil for its cultivation, which would be desirable, now that the cinchona forests on the declivity of the Andes are becoming exhausted.

'The Rubiaceous plants are especially numerous in Guiana. There are several different species of coffee growing wild in the interior parts, as well as of the cephalus genus, of which the true ipecacuanha is one; and there can be no doubt but that the cinchona will likewise be found, all these being of the same natural family. Another tree (of a new genus perhaps) found in Pomeroon, and described by the writer,

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affords a tonic and febrifuge bark, not inferior to cinchona.

'The cocoa tree grows spontaneously in various parts of Guiana; coffee, pepper, indigo, and vanilla, are indigenous to the soil; manioc and cassada are considered the best alimentary plants; the potato, the igname, two kinds of millet, and the tayove, are also very nutritive.

'Guiana is famed for its medicinal plants. It supplies Europe with quassia, or the wood of Surinam. The *dolichos pruriens*, the *palma Christi*, a species of ipecacuanha, gentian, the Arabicus costus, the *copaifera balsam*, and many others, are mentioned in the memoirs of Bajon and Aublet[1].'

Sufficient has been written to show the value of

[1] Dr. Lindley, in a late number of his *Botanical Register*, describes the following curious plant, which is a native of the woods in Demerara, where it is not uncommon, hanging from the branches of trees and suspending in the air the singular lips of its flowers like fairy buckets, as if for the use of the birds and insects that inhabit the surrounding foliage. It is of the natural order *Orchideæ*, '*Coryanthes Maculata*' (spotted Coryanthes). 'There certainly is not a more singular genus than this in the whole vegetable kingdom, nor one whose flowers are less like flowers to the eye of the ordinary observer. The sepals are of the most delicate texture; when young they spread equally round the centre, but after a few hours they collapse, and assume the appearance of a bat's wing half closed. The lip is furnished near its base with a yellow cup, over which hangs two horns constantly distilling water into it, and in such abundance as to fill it several times; this cup communicates by a narrow channel formed of the inflated margin of the lip, with the upper end of the latter, and this also is a capacious vessel very much like an old helmet, into which the honey

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the vegetable productions of the British settlements on the continent of South America.

CHAPTER IV.

ANIMAL KINGDOM—EMBRACING QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, REPTILES, AND INSECTS.

THE New World, when discovered by Columbus, was found to contain few quadrupeds, and those few by no means equal in size, strength, or ferocity, to the animals of Asia or Africa; while some were peculiar to the American continent.

Among the principal animals found in British Guiana, are the Mypourie (Tapir); Jaguar (South American Tiger); Bakkire, Pingo, and Peccary (Wild Hogs); Lobba, a small, amphibious animal; Salempanter (large Lizard); Cayman (or Crocodile); Coatimundi (or Fox); Opossum; Deer; Manati (Sea Cow); Sloth; Ant-bear; Vampyre, &c. &c.

The *Tapir*, or *Mypourie*, is about the size of an Alderney cow; body shaped like the hog, having short legs and tail, and four small hoofs on each foot; head like that of the rhinoceros, with a prominent bone projecting from the forehead, to which its moveable upper lip and nostrils are attached,

that the cup cannot contain may run over. The drawing which illustrates the description is taken from a specimen in the Horticultural Gardens.'

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forming a kind of proboscis; in its upper jaw there are seven grinders on each side, four front teeth, and two sharp tusks—grinders very large, and deeply cuspidated; in the under jaw, six grinders and one tusk on each side, and six fore teeth; ears small, oblong, and pointed; back slightly arched, and covered with short hair of a greyish brown or dun colour. The greatest singularity in this animal is its want of a gall-bladder. It confines itself chiefly to marshes and rivers, feeding upon roots and aquatic plants, and, when pursued, invariably takes to the water, and there, like the hippopotamus, is sure of a safe retreat. The flesh of this animal, when roasted, closely resembles beef, especially if it be young; the hide, when tanned, makes excellent boot soles, and is highly prized by the Indians for the manufacture of shields. A fine specimen of the East India Tapir may be seen at the Company's museum, East India House, London.

The *Bakkire* resembles the Egyptian wild boar in shape, but is not so large. It is a native of the high and mountainous parts of the country, subsisting on roots, branches of trees, occasionally on snakes and lizards, &c.—in fact, on any thing that comes in its way; very courageous and fierce when attacked, often coming off best in a combat with the panther, and sometimes even with the jaguar, but not often with the latter. When young, colour light brown, marked longitudinally with light grey stripes, which gradually become of an uniform dusky hue as it gets old; spinous bristles, very stiff, and raised like those of a hedgehog when the animal is irritated. It has

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a glandular orifice in the back, containing an offensive liquor, similar to the peccary.

Pingo, another animal of the same species, but smaller, and more slender in shape. Habits and propensities in every respect the same as the former.

Coney Coney, called the *Acouri*, or Agouti, and by Sphixth *Lepus Americanus*. It is one of the cavery species; in form something like the guinea-pig, but more delicately shaped, having fine long limbs; runs very swiftly; lives in hollow trees, banks, and other places where it can burrow; food is wild plants, fruits, roots, insects, &c.

Paca, also like the guinea-pig in shape; about a foot in length; hair of a fine chestnut-colour on the back, sprinkled with white spots; underneath the belly it is entirely white. A remarkably clean little animal; flesh esteemed a delicacy, and something like the European hare, by which name it is sometimes called. Very docile, and easily domesticated.

The *Manati*, or *Sea-Cow*, though one of the *mammalia*, can scarcely be classed among the terrestrial animals. The head is somewhat like a bull-dog, nostrils semi-lunar, eyes very small, and near the snout; it is without ears in outward appearance, but has two small spiracula situated at the lateral and back part of the head; nostrils like an ox; mouth large, with soft and protracted lips, fitted for laying hold of the grass or herbage growing near the shore; they have no canine or fore teeth; the upper jaw has ten grinders, and the under fourteen; neck short, and body covered with a rough, blackish skin, thinly sprinkled with bristly hair; the belly and sides, near

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the tail, white; length from eight to fourteen or sixteen feet. They have no gills, but respire through lungs which consist of two long lobes, situated one on each side of the spine. From the shoulders protrude two pectoral fins, resembling arms, with which it supports itself in the water, carries away its calf in time of danger, and which enable the female to give suck to its young (of which it bears one or sometimes two at a time), who receive it from several porous openings or mammæ in the breast of the animal, near the axillæ or armpits. It has no other fins; the tail is fleshy, and fourteen inches broad, horizontally, shaped like that of a whale. It feeds upon the aquatic plants and shrubs growing on the borders of the rivers and lakes, sometimes elevating its head to munch at the bushes which overhang them. Flesh white and delicate, resembling veal or young pork, and will keep good several weeks, even in the hot climate of which it is a native, when other meat will not resist putrefaction for as many days.

The *Peccary*, or *Mexican Hog*, is supposed to be indigenous to Guiana, and will not breed with either the wild or domestic hog. It has an orifice in the lower part of the back, from which a fetid liquor is constantly oozing, of a very disagreeable smell; and the natives, upon killing the animal, cut away that part to prevent its infecting the flesh and rendering it uneatable. When full-grown, about three feet in length, with finely formed, strong limbs, short tusks, and white or grey bristles. A light-coloured mark extends from the shoulders, on each side of the

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breast, having some resemblance to a horse-collar. The Peccarii run in large droves in the woods, uttering a loud noise, and are very vicious and mischievous when pursued or irritated.

The *Water-Hare* (also called the *water-hog*) is an animal about the size of a half-grown English pig, of the hippopotamus species, but differing in shape from those of Africa, although of similar habits; mouth exactly like that of the hare, having long front teeth; the ears shorter, and more erect; and the head large and broad; back covered with stiff hair, of a dusky brown colour; belly and inside of the legs grey or dirty white; tail very short. When pursued by dogs, it makes the nearest way for the water, and, swimming into the centre or deepest part, waits the attack with coolness. On its pursuers approaching, it strikes them with its fore paws with such surprising quickness and strength, forcing them under the water at every blow, that they are obliged to return to the shore, tired out and half drowned. The flesh is considered excellent food, being white and delicate, and much of the same flavour as the tapir (mypourie).

The *Quacy-quacy*, or *Coatimondi* (the fox of Demerara), is in body shaped like a dog, of a dark-brown colour, and measuring two feet from snout to the tail, which is long, hairy, annulated, having black rings upon a deep buff colour ground; breast and belly dingy white, jaws long and light brown, snout black and projecting upwards, legs short (particularly the foremost), feet long, and, like the bear, frequently standing upon its hind legs, and walking always

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upon its heels; admirable climbers, very cunning and strong, and great depredators on the poultry yards of the planters.

The *Sloth*, of which there are two or three species, varying in size, is usually about two feet in length, with a head like a monkey, mouth exceedingly wide, eyes languid, hinder legs shorter than the fore, hair long, bushy, of a dirty grey or reddish colour, resembling moss, and with three or two toes (according to the species), and long and arched claws, with which it clings to the branches (always hanging from them, never standing on them), in which position it is to be found asleep or in action. The South American sloth is said to be devoid of a gall-bladder, and the urethra opens into the rectum, after a manner similar to the ornithorincus of New Holland. Its flesh is devoured with great avidity by the natives. There is a species of small sloth, called by the Arrewaaks *Wareta-Kania*, which they say will live a year without food. Its motion is very slow.

The *Ant-Bear* measures six feet from the tip of its long tail to the snout; covered with long, shaggy, black hair on the back and belly, and on the neck and sides of a yellowish grey; the head extremely long and slender, of a light bay colour; ears short and round; mouth without teeth, and only large enough to admit its tongue, which is nearly twenty inches in length when elongated on an ant-hill, and resembling a worm covered with slime. When seeking food, the bear stretches his tongue on a hillock, and draws it into his mouth as often as it is covered

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with the ants, which stick to it in crossing. The hind legs are black, shorter than the fore, and having five claws; the fore legs are of a dirty white, with four claws, the two central of enormous length. The ant-bear travels slowly, walking on the outside of his fore feet, in search of ant-hills, and, when asleep, covers itself with its enormous tail. It is esteemed good eating.

The *Jaguar*, or, as it is sometimes called, the South American tiger, (although it more properly should be classed with the ounce species,) is of a beautiful bright colour, between brown and yellow, and, when full-grown, about the size of and very much resembling the ounce in shape; the top of the back is striated, of a dark colour, which, as the animal gets old, becomes at last quite black; the sides are beautifully variegated with irregular, oblong spots, open in the middle, with a central shading of a light yellow. The jaguar is very courageous, and will attack an ox or buffalo; but if he fails in bringing it down, he retires to seek an easier prey, which, should he not obtain, he will then lie in wait for the human species: this, however, is very seldom the case, unless when compelled by extreme hunger. It can swim well, crossing the large rivers with which the country abounds with the greatest facility.

The *Tiger Cat* is as large as a well-grown European cat, but more slender in shape, and longer limbed; usual colour light grey, head striped with black, and body marked with long, irregular, dark spots; there are some variegated with red and black.

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They live generally in the woods, feeding upon small lizards, mice, birds, &c., and, when taken quite young, may be domesticated.

The *Crabo Dago* (i. e. a dog living on crabs) is about two feet long and nine inches high; head large, and snout full and thick, like that of the hyæna; tail long, and legs rather short; the colour, generally, is a greyish brown. It lives upon crabs, birds, and fruits; is not ferocious, but very mischievous.

There is another species of crabo dago, described under the title of quaci-quaci. None of the native dogs of South America have any voice.

The *Opossum*, a small animal of the kangaroo species, varies from six to thirteen inches in length; the colour sometimes black, brown, or grey; head oblong, and large in proportion to the size of the body; eyes small; ears large, pointed at the end, and standing upright; the tail long and prehensile, but not hairy in general; the feet have five toes, with sharp claws, except on the large toe on the hind feet, which is round. Its chief food is nuts, buds of trees, and grain of any kind. There are two or three sorts of this animal, but the above will suffice for a general description.

The *Armadillo* (of which there are several varieties, with three, six, nine, or thirteen bands) is covered with a strong crust of scales or shells, having in some species loose, scattered hairs, in hexangular figures, and of from seven to ten moveable bands, the last of which is only half way up on each side; the head is very oblong; ears in proportion, and

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erect; tail long and jointed; claws large, sharply pointed, strongly fitted for digging in the ground; the middle nail of the fore foot longer, broader, irregularly shaped, curved inwards and downwards; there are five toes on each foot; some have four toes on the fore feet, and five on the hinder. The animal rolls itself up when sleeping, to cover with its armour its vulnerable parts (the snout, ears, and belly), in case of attack. It is a quiet, harmless creature, feeding upon roots, worms, and insects, and grows to about eighteen or twenty inches in length; its flesh is considered delicate eating, somewhat like a rabbit in taste and colour, and it burrows in the ground like that animal. When pursued, it begins digging a fresh burrow, if too far off its own retreat; and when half buried, and its tail taken hold of by its pursuers, it will suffer it to be torn off sooner than let go its hold. The Indians tickle it behind with a small stick, which soon causes it to relinquish its hold, and allow itself to be taken.

There are two species of *Deer* very numerous in Guiana;—the one resembling in shape the fallow deer of Europe, but with shorter and less branching antlers, usually of a brown grey, very fleet and courageous when closely pursued; the other something like the European roebuck when young, of a light brown, with longitudinal stripes of a clear white, about the size of a goat, very delicately framed, and without horns. It lives chiefly in the marshy parts of the colony, and, if taken[1] when

[1] The Indians have a curious method of taking animals, which they perform in the following manner:—a man, seated

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quite young, may be domesticated, but never lives long in that state, gradually pining to death. When full grown, its colour becomes uniformly brown.

The *Baboons* and *Monkeys* of Guiana exhibit great variety: among the most remarkable are

The *Howling Baboon*; of a bright ferruginous colour, and about thirty inches in height when standing erect; face beardless, quite bare, and covered with a black skin, as are also the hands; tail prehensile, and of considerable length. The cartilaginous organ with which the rattling noise is made, from whence it is named, is about six inches in circumference, in the form of the cup of a wine glass, with the upper part turned to the windpipe, and surrounded with numerous membranes, which can be opened or closed according to the pleasure of the animal; the noise issuing from it is clear and shrill, and can be heard at a considerable distance.

The *Kissee Kissee* (of the *Sapajou* species) is about the size of a half-grown cat, perfectly symmetrical in form; head small and round, face of a fresh colour, and covered with short white hair; eyes large, black, and piercing; the tip of the nose and the mouth surrounded with black hair; the body is of a bright gold yellow, shaded with brown, the under part white: hands and feet orange colour; the tail, which is tufted at the end, dark brown or black.

in a thickly branched tree, blows a species of flute or whistle called pita, with which they can imitate the cry of a young deer; by this means he not only brings the old dam to him, but various beasts of prey, which are soon shot by hunters concealed in other trees near the spot.

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When this little animal is taken young, it becomes quite domesticated, but if confined to a room or chained up, soon frets itself to death. There is a rare species of the *sapajou* which can seldom be caught, about the same size as the above, but differing in colour,—the body being brown, the head, face, and hands, black; the chin edged with a short straight beard, which is continued all round the head; the face is flat, and the cartilaginous partition of the nostril very broad. It is of a mild disposition.

The *Wanacoe*, or bush-tailed brown *Saccawinkee*, is rather larger than the two preceding, and covered all over with long brown hair, which turns on the head towards the face; tail like that of a squirrel. It is in general a lively and docile animal, but turns melancholy if confined, in which state it will not live long.

The *Large-eared Saccawinkee* is not more than eight or ten inches long, but beautifully formed; the face is round, nose high between the eyes, and flat towards the end; upper lip divided, like that of the hare; eyes dark chesnut colour; ears large in proportion to the body, and tail at least a foot long; the fore hands, and as high as the elbow, are of an orange colour; the body a shining black, intermixed with yellow hair; the face is also black; although there is a very rare species having a white face. The Dutch have named the first-mentioned *Chagrintee*, on account of its being soon offended, when it becomes spiteful and mischievous.

Of many other species, the *Quata* is considered by

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the Indians as possessing the most intelligence of all the monkey tribe; it is said to be taught to fetch water from a well in a cabash.

BIRDS.—The sportsman and naturalist will find ample employment in Guiana, where the feathered tribe, in number and splendour of plumage, make some amends for the deficiency observable in quadrupeds. To particularize each species, would be beyond the limits assigned me; I must therefore content myself with giving, as in the foregoing section, a few specimens as illustrative of the country. To begin with the connecting link between birds and beasts, I may mention—

The *Vampyre Bat*, which often measures thirty inches from point to point of wing when extended, although the body seldom exceeds seven or eight; it resembles the harpies of old in its hideous and disgusting appearance. The vampyres may be seen in the forests, hanging head downwards in clusters on the branches of trees; the large kind suck, it is said, the blood of men and animals when sleeping, the smaller that of birds; while sucking, a gentle flapping is kept up by the wings, which lulls the sufferer until an exhaustion of blood prolongs the period when the vampyre may suck with impunity. While sleeping in an open hut, the vampyres are only kept off by means of large fires.

The *Crested Eagle* far surpasses in size the monarch of European birds, sometimes measuring seven or eight feet across the wings; it has a crest of four long black feathers, which are erected when about

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to seize its prey, or if it be irritated. The ground colour is of an ash grey, with dark shading; bill and legs yellow, very strong and long; eyes large and black.

The *Falcon*, of which there are two or three species, differs very little from those of Europe in shape or size, and is chiefly distinguishable by the colours.

The *White* Falcon (so called from its body being of a beautiful clear white,) has wings and tail like a swallow, of a bright glossy black, as are also the legs and eyes.

The *Brown Falcon* is in every respect like the former, except the colour of the body, which is brown, with the belly and thighs covered with yellow spots.

The *Spotted Falcon* is a most beautiful bird, about the size of a pigeon, and similar in shape to the preceding; head, beak, wings, and tail, black; legs yellow, and breast a deep orange, with white specks scattered over the whole body.

The *King of the Vultures*, an immense bird, as large as the black eagle, is of a pinky white, or flesh colour, in the body; wings black; head and neck (entirely divested of feathers) of an orange and rose colour, alternately shaded; the beak is overhung with a fleshy substance, also of an orange colour, curiously shaped, like an ornamental tassel. The eyes of a light pearl colour, are round and large and sparkling; around the neck, above the breast, is a kind of collar of thick rough feathers, of an iron grey colour, which serves it as a safeguard to draw

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its head into when likely to be stung or wounded by the venomous snakes upon which it usually feeds.

Among the birds worthy of notice for the beauty of their plumage, or singular propensities and habits, are

The *Banana Bird* (so called from its fondness for that fruit,) as large as a thrush; body chiefly of a yellow or orange colour, beak and legs horn colour, wings and tail black; it builds its nest nearly a yard in height, of a conical form, composed mostly of grass, with an opening half way down for its entrance. The bottom is semi-globular, with the upper and narrowest part fastened to the extremity of a branch that overhangs the water, in order to secure its inmate and brood from lizards and other reptiles.

The *Currie Currie*, or Red Curlew, is a very beautiful bird, having a neck, body and wings of bright scarlet, the four principal wing feathers tipped with black; its legs are long and slender. It is larger than the common curlew, and very delicious eating when young, at which time it is quite black, not attaining its rich plumage until a year old.

The *Partridge*, called *Anamoe*, is much of the same shape as the European partridge, but larger, of a dark brown colour on the top of the head, back, and wings; the breast, legs, and thighs, of a cream colour, with transversal bars of orange and black feathers. The head and bill are small, neck long, tail wanting; it is a bad flying bird, runs very swift, and

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finds shelter among the low bush-wood; its flesh is considered luxuriant eating.

The *Maam* is about the size of a pullet, which it resembles in shape and habits. Colour of a light brown; when dressed the flesh is white and delicate, but very dry; although the bird is exceedingly plump and fat, and cannot fly any great distance without resting.

The *Wallababa* is a beautiful bird, with a deep purple body and white wings. Its cry sounds like its name, but its voice is harsh and hoarse.

The *Ibibirou* is somewhat like an English magpie; head black and white; breast black, and wings tastefully variegated.

The *Tiger Bird*, or *Bittern*, is of a bright brown colour, marked with back stripes like the animal after which it is named; bill hard, long, and very sharp pointed; neck and legs very long; and the body, although looking large when the bird is flying, generally small and thin.

The *Douraquare* resembles the English partridge in its colours, but is not more than half its size.

The *Dara* is about as large as the jay, with a plumage of snow-white, and a high crest of black and white rising from its head; its notes are clear, loud, sonorous, and romantic, resembling the sound of a village church bell.

The *Mocking Bird* is larger than the starling, of a black and yellow colour, with its beak of a sulphur tint; delights (as most of the birds of this continent do,) to take up his abode near the habitation of man; his note is sweet and short, but if a sheep bleat near

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him, a dog bark, or a hen cackle, he stops his own note, and instantly commences with apparent delight an imitation of the animal he hears, with a mimicry quite extraordinary. The nests are pendulous, and suspended from the outer branches of trees, similar to those of the Banana Bird, to which it is a near species, if not actually identical; but the latter is not so perfect in its imitations, which is in all probability the reason they have been distinctly classed.

The *Waracoba*, or *Trumpeter* (Psophia Crepitans of Linnæus), is about the size of a domestic fowl, with short wings and tail, and long legs, runs very fast, but seldom flies. The singular habits of this bird are very amusing: it will stand on one leg as the traveller approaches, and hop or dance before him, and then tumble over and over like a merry andrew, uttering at the same time a peculiar noise, from which it derives its name. When domesticated, it becomes much attached to the person who feeds it, following him about like a dog, and driving away all other birds, and even a dog or any domestic animal; jumping upon and scratching them with such fury that it intimidates and puts them to flight. Naturalists are at a loss to account for the sound it makes, some averring that it proceeds from the belly, after the manner of a ventriloquist; others (and Linnæus amongst the number,) say it is caused by the anus, but they all agree that this power is confined to the male bird. According to Dr. Hancock, a gentleman of great experience, who resided in the West Indies nearly thirty years, the trachea (windpipe) runs down the belly to within an inch of the anus; it is

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then doubled back upon itself and enters the cavity of the chest at the anterior part of the breast-bone; in all probability, therefore, it is this peculiar formation that gave rise to the before-mentioned conjecture. These birds are highly prized by the Indians, and kept in their houses, but are seldom or ever known to breed when domesticated.

The *Sun Fowl* is about the size of a woodcock, and similar in shape, with a long pointed beak, and long slender legs; colour brown, shaded with black and yellow; the long feathers in the wings resemble the rays of the sun, which it is apparently very proud of showing, as it almost invariably appears with its wings spread out like a peacock's tail. It lives upon insects, and soon becomes tame.

The *Swallows* of Guiana resemble those of Europe in most respects, but are rather larger, and in place of the white mark under the throat of the latter, have one of an ash-grey. They build in houses, and never quit the country.

Macaws and *Parrots* are in great variety.

The *Toucan* (called by the natives *Pia-poco*, from its cry) is about the size of a magpie; its enormous beak appears to weigh the bird down to the earth. Plumage exquisitely variegated with yellow and black, upon a ground of brilliant scarlet; eye encircled by bare skin, of the same colours combined. It flies by jerks, like the magpie, and is equally cautious of strangers.

The *Hou-tou* (also named from its cry) is a most magnificent bird, its plumage partaking of all the colours of the rainbow. It can only be met with, at

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the dawn of morning, in the woods and unfrequented places, and may then be heard articulating "*Hou-tou, hou-tou,*" in such a distinct, mournful tone, that the traveller is at once interested and delighted. This bird never approaches the habitation of man, shuns all society with other birds, and is seldom caught.

The melodious bird called *Arecaku*, in the Arawaak tongue, is a small bird of a brownish colour, which whistles a regular tune, consisting of several octaves. It is also called fugle-man, *i. e.* flute-player. It is the same bird as that alluded to by Spix and Martius in their Travels, vol. i. p. 286, and which they took for a sort of thrush. It is a nightingale, or of the motacilla genus, extremely shy; and probably still a nondescript, or at least not identified.

The *Wow Wow*, so called by the natives, is a beautiful bird, with a head and breast of a deep blue; back and rump very much like the peacock's neck; belly bright yellow, or gold colour; and very short legs, so that the bird seems to squat on its stomach, much like the swallow; the neck is quite destitute of feathers, although it cannot be easily observed, as it sits upon the branches with its head sunk between its shoulders: it flies by long jerks, and is about the size of a pigeon.

The *Han-na-qua* somewhat resembles a hen pheasant, though smaller in size; the bill and legs are flesh-coloured, and the cheeks red.

The *Marradie*, or *Wild Fowl*, is of the same species as the former; about the size of a barn-door fowl; head and body chiefly black, slightly speckled with white.

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The *Cole* is also of the same species, size, and colour as the Marradie, except the head and cheeks, which are white; the latter are naked.

The *Derli*, or *Fly-catcher*, equal to any before mentioned for variety and beauty of plumage, is about the size of a pigeon, its body partaking of all the different shades of brown, spotted with white and black. It may be easily tamed, and will stay in a house, feeding upon flies, which it darts at with its bill.

The *Powie Powie*, or *Wild Turkey* (somewhat smaller than the domestic bird of Europe,) has a bright yellow bill, and a beautiful crest of glossy black feathers, very curiously curled near the points; head, neck, and body, of a shining black; tail long, consisting of several broad feathers, which it can spread at pleasure. This bird, like the Hou-tou, &c. derives its name from its cry, and is excellent eating.

The *Peacock Colibri*, or *Humming Bird*, of which there are varieties too numerous to be treated of here, is of an exquisite shining green, with a rich red brown shading; neck, particularly brilliant, of a still lighter green; tail, a bright purple, with gold-coloured feathers on each side; the bird is about three inches long, of which the tail is full half. There are several other species, varying in size from a quarter of an inch to five inches, and variegated with all the colours of the rainbow. Their nests are built between the forked branches of trees, and are composed of dry leaves, lined with silk cotton; they lay two white eggs, of the size of peas, but rather

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oval in shape, on which they sit ten or twelve days. These exquisitely lovely creatures subsist chiefly on the juice of flowers; the largest sorts upon gnats and other very small insects.

The *Black-winged Woodcreeper*, somewhat larger than an European titmouse, is of a most brilliant ultra-marine blue, except the throat and wings, which are glossy black; the inside of the wings silver grey; the bill, about an inch and a half long, is black, and the legs orange, with three toes before and one behind, ending in small crooked nails.

Among the principal water-fowl are

The *Snow-white Egrette*, so called from the delicate and beautiful plume on its breast, which so frequently adorns the heads of the European noblesse. The bird is of the shape of the heron, but not quite so large, with a black bill.

The *Spoonbill* is as large as a full-grown goose, and, like that bird, web-footed; the bill, from which it derives its name, is from six to seven inches long, quite straight and flat to within two inches of the tip, where it becomes broad and round, exactly resembling a spoon; the head is of a whitish or grey colour, and rather bald on the top; and the feathers on the body are slightly tinted with pink. The spoonbills may be seen by dozens standing in a line, ranged like soldiers on the beach, waiting for the small fish which are brought in by the tide.

The *Hammie Hammie*, a large bird of the heron species, so called by the natives, measures about six feet from head to foot, with a long straight bill,

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terminating in a point; of a light pink, or flesh colour. The top of the head is black, adorned with a small crest; neck long and white; wings brown, and tipped with black; and back covered with long hairy feathers.

The *Vicissy Duck* is smaller than the European duck; bill, legs, and feet of an orange colour; feathers on the top of the head brown, with variegated bars of a light chesnut; breast, a dark mahogany colour. The Vicissy breed in the savannahs, and make a sort of whistling noise, not in the least like that made by ducks in England. They are so timid that when fired at, though unhurt, they fall to the ground to all appearance dead; but if not mortally wounded, they are scarcely ever discovered, as they hide themselves in the grass with surprising dexterity. They are very delicate eating, being free from that fishy taste so unpleasant in the Muscovy duck.

The *Jabiru*, or *Crane*, is clear white, except the head and prime feathers of the wings and the tail, which are black; the legs, neck, and back, are very long, like the European stork, which it also resembles in size.

The *Grey Crane* is of the same shape, but not so large as the former; of a bluish grey, with a small crest on the back part of the head, and some long light grey feathers along the neck; the beak and legs (long, like the preceding) are of a greenish cast.

The *Flamingo*, about half the size of the European stork, and of the same shape, is of a lively scarlet

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when full grown; when young (white or grey), with an arched bill, long legs, and wings[1].

The *Aunakee*, or *Wild Duck*, is not so large as that of Europe, but stands higher on its legs; it is of a light brown, beautifully variegated with darker shades; bill and legs of a pale orange; frequently domesticated among the poultry, and excellent eating.

The *Water Hen* is about the size of, and resembles in shape, the European moor hen, but of a deep cinnamon colour, with the principal wing feathers of a light green; it has a small comb on the forehead, crossing the beak, of a blood red; the beak, which is about two inches long, is of a yellowish green. It has three long toes before and one behind; taste rather insipid and somewhat fishy.

The *Darter* is a fine bird, as large as a Muscovy duck, and something like it in shape, but more slender; the head is oblong, and small in proportion to the body, ending in a pointed beak about three inches long, which causes it to look like a serpent; neck long, body chiefly grey, shaded with black and white. This bird waits on the bank until it sees a fish rise in the water, when it pounces down with

[1] The embouchures of the rivers in Eastern Africa are crowded with these beautiful birds, which, at a distance, resemble regiments of soldiers drawn up on the beach to oppose a landing. During the expedition of Capt. Owen in the *Leven and Barracouta*, I have seen our sailors shoot hundreds of flamingos for the purpose of making a dish of the *tongue alone*, the remainder of the bird, in imitation of the Roman epicures, being thrown away.

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amazing quickness; if unsuccessful in transfixing the fish with its beak it will pursue it under water, and indeed it rarely fails in catching the object pursued.

Lizards and Serpents.—Guiana, teeming with animal and vegetable life under a vertical sun, may be naturally supposed prolific in lizards, serpents, &c. These reptiles are, however, objects of fear, owing rather to their prodigious size or hideous appearance, than to their poisonous qualities or voracity towards man.

The *Cayman*, or *Crocodile*, or *Alligator*, is seldom found more than from fifteen to twenty feet in length, usually of a light dusky colour when young, but becoming iron grey when full grown; it has a hard, scaly, impenetrable skin, indented on the back and upper ridge of the tail; the head very strongly formed, with a long snout and extremely wide jaws, armed with a formidable double row of sharp teeth. The claws on the fore feet are tremendously strong and sharp. The flesh, although of a musky smell, is eaten with avidity by the Indians. For a description of the internal structure, see Cuvier's Natural History. The Indians, it is said, are very expert in catching the cayman. A man dives down upon the crocodile's back, while asleep, and fastens a rope round its body; he then strides across it, and, making a signal to his companions on the river's bank, they are pulled towards the surface of the water together. By tickling it under the axilla with a stick, the monster, it is stated, becomes perfectly manageable, and is hauled to the beach, where the rider's comrades dispatch him with iron-shod

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clubs. Such is the statement of the Indians; but it is even more difficult to believe than Mr. Waterton's story of riding a crocodile when it was caught with a hook through the mouth.

The *Guana* is about three feet long from the head to the extremity of the tail, and covered with a soft skin; of a blueish green colour on the back and legs; on the sides and belly nearly white. It has a bag or pouch of loose skin under its throat of a light green, eyes black, and claws, of which there are three or five on each foot, sharply pointed. A fringed skin or kind of mane runs along from the head to the tail, which it erects when irritated, and will then snap hold of any thing with great tenacity, but it is perfectly harmless if undisturbed. The bite is painful, but not dangerous. The Indians hunt this animal for its flesh, which is reckoned but little inferior to turtle in flavour.

The *Brown Lizard*, called also the *Devil in the Wood*, is about eighteen inches long, tail included; it has no scales, is of a dark brown colour, mixed with black spots; head large, legs armed with strong claws; runs very fast, feeds on small birds and insects, and will bite very severely.

The *Serpentine Lizard* is a very singular reptile, being neither serpent nor lizard, but partaking of the characters of both. The shape and contour of the body is exactly that of a serpent, with four armatures or feet attached. The body is very slender, and nearly cylindric, covered with small annular bands, a little interrupted at the insertions of the feet, which are very imperfect, being small appen-

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dages, almost without toes or nails, except mere rudiments; it is, therefore, their situation alone that would imply them to answer that purpose. The eyes are small, teeth widely placed, and very fine, tongue bifid and cutaneous; back of chocolate colour, belly white. The limbs have each a joint about the middle, forming a sort of elbow, and there are three toes on each fore foot. When roused by any approaching danger, it displays much courage and agility, notwithstanding its helpless appearance, and springs aside at the assailant sometimes to the distance of two feet, never making the least attempt to escape. The bands under the belly are quite incapable of being elevated so as to facilitate motion, as in most other serpents.

The *Banded* or *Annulated Lizard*, a harmless little creature, about five inches long, is one of the prettiest of the species; it has a flat and pointed head; body covered with black and light blue regular stripes, about a quarter of an inch wide; feet, each five small sharp claws; tail about an inch and a half long, pyramidical in form, and covered with fine bristles.

The *Salempenta*, or *El Mateo*, measuring from the tail to the nose three feet, is exceedingly ugly; colour chiefly a brownish green, with yellow spots, and marked in the most extraordinary hieroglyphical manner; amphibious, running along the bottom of rivers as easily as it does on dry land, and feeding on herbs and small insects; it is thought (particularly by the Indians) good eating, the flesh being white and tender: resembles the Guana when seen at a distance, but much more repulsive in appearance

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than that animal. The Salempenta has (like the Chameleon, and several others of the same species) in some measure the faculty of changing its colour when in any way excited, either through fright or anger; but does not show its shades in such great variety as the Agamma, or common *Green Lizard*, which is about ten inches long, of which the tail measures half.

The *Agamma*, or *American Chameleon*, is distinct from those of Africa in shape, by the back part of the head not running to a point, and its tongue being short and thick; body about six inches long, tail above nine; it is in shape like the Guana, to which genus it belongs; the principal change of colour observed in it is from green to brown, or *vice versa*, which, in the opinion of Baron von Sack (who had several of them domesticated) is assumed to deceive an enemy when approaching, and to render itself invisible; for example, if put on a green umbrella (says the Baron), it immediately changed to that colour, and upon being let down upon the floor, which was made of the bollo tree (of a dark brown), it assumed a very dark chocolate colour. This change seems to be effected by the motion or disposition of its scales, as they are either elevated or depressed by its voluntary power; and when the reptile is fresh caught this will take place five or six times in a minute, all the time snapping at any thing that approaches it. The bite, if not attended to, will inflame and become painful, but is not at all dangerous. The power of changing colour is not

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confined solely to the chameleon, but is common to several of the lizard tribe.

Of the serpents, the *Iguana* is in colour resembling the *Guana* lizard, and has a similar bag or pouch under the throat. It is about seven or eight feet in length when full grown; its bite is said to be in most cases fatal.

The *Rattle Snake* is usually between seven and eight feet long, very thick in the middle, and tapering towards the neck and tail; head large, flat, and broad, with two knobs or projections over the eyes; nostrils wide, and snout blunt at the end. Within the tail are several thin horny hollow rings, with which, when the snake becomes excited, a rattle-like noise is made. The colour of the head and back is a dusky orange, mixed with brown and black spots; belly a whitish grey or ash colour, teeth long and widely situate, tongue forked and quite black; bite considered fatally poisonous.

The *Kunukusi*, or *Cænnukusi*, so called from counoko, the wood or bush; attains very often ten or twelve feet in length, and is of a yellowish-grey colour, marked on the back with dark brown or black spots, of a diamond shape, and zig-zag or diagonal lines; the belly of an ash or dirty white colour. The Kunukusi is the Crotalus Mutus of Linnæus, placed by some naturalists under the genus Boa, but more properly belonging to that of the himaria, labaria, and parrot snake. The Kunukusi has a head somewhat three-sided in shape, and obtusely levelled, or as if pared round with a perpendicular stroke of a

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knife; eyes placed laterally, having over each a large oblong scale. On each side of its mouth there is a bundle consisting of seven fangs, the foremost one fixed in the upper jaw, on a prominence or projecting point of a bone, which is capable of motion. The second, of about the same size, is attached, as it were, by cartilage, and keeps the same position as the first. The remaining five lie in a bundle, enveloped in a separate sheath, immediately behind the two primary ones, gradually diminishing in size backwards; the tongue is three forked; the tail, which is short and pointed, terminates with a horny substance, sometimes an inch in length. This serpent, like most others of a venomous character, is very sluggish, and slow to bite, unless irritated, and then it darts with great velocity, springing its whole length on an enemy, who, if bitten, meets inevitable death.

The *Labaria* is another venomous serpent, of the same genus as the preceding, which it closely resembles in shape, but is much smaller, and its colours more vivid; measures five or six feet when full grown; of an ashy grey on the body, and light blue on the sides and belly; back is marked with dark spots and yellowish transverse lines; head and fangs are similar to those of the preceding.

The *Himararia* is another of the same character in every respect as the two above named.

The *Parrot Snake*, so called from its colour being exactly like the common green parrot, is of the same genus as the three former. It grows to about a yard in length, and resides in hollow trees, preying upon

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small birds, mice, and insects; bite extremely dangerous, in most cases proving mortal.

The *Cebayru*, one of the worst class of poisonous serpents, is generally found about three feet six inches in length, thick in proportion, of an ash colour, with transverse bands of black and white under the belly: eyes large, and covered with a thin transparent convex or lens, of a grey colour; mouth also large, with two rows of teeth on each side of the upper jaw, and one in the lower; at the posterior extremity of the outer row, in the upper jaw, on each side, is a large fang pointing backwards, provided with a muscular sheath or cover. The whole body is covered with large scales; it moves with great rapidity, (contrary to the habits of most others of this class,) sometimes springing several yards at a leap; the bite causes the body to swell, producing almost instant death: it preys upon small birds and reptiles.

The *Scarlet Serpent* reaches to the length of five feet, and to four inches in circumference; upper part of the body of a brilliant scarlet, belly of a dull red, head flat and white, tail very slender and short; bite in most cases fatal.

The *Caruna*, when full-grown, is about four feet long, slender in shape, of a brown colour on the back, belly dusky white, sides and back covered with black oval spots; head is wide and flat, neck small, and bite believed to be poisonous.

The *Colukunaru* (in Arrawaak, to take deer), growing as large as the East India boa constrictor, and to which genus it belongs, is generally of a grey ground

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colour, beautifully dotted with brown spots; towards the tail the colour becomes of a reddish brown, joined with white rays, or bounded by irregular white spots; on the back and sides it is finely marked with transverse bars of an ash colour, the belly speckled with a light yellowish green. It is much feared by the Indians, on account of its prodigious strength, as it very often seizes a horse, or other animal of equal size, and, winding itself round the lower part of the belly, makes its way towards the head, breaking every bone, and holding, as it were, by hitches (like that part of machinery called the cog-wheel, which forms a stop or check to retain whatever it has gained,) until its victim is incapable of motion, when it begins to gorge the carcase whole. The colukuñaru is said to exhale a pestilential air from the mouth, which deprives its prey of motion, and renders it perfectly passive; but this has never been substantiated.

The *Camodi*, an amphibious snake, from ten to fourteen feet in length, and sixteen inches in circumference, is of a grey ground colour, with large, oblong, dark brown or black spots; the sides have ocellated marks or spots, of the same colour, with yellow centres. It is of the same class of serpents as the preceding, but usually living in creeks or ponds, and subsisting upon ducks and other waterfowl. Its bite, though not poisonous, is very severe, as it has two rows of sharp teeth in the upper jaw, a quarter of an inch long, and pointed slightly backwards.

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The *Mamuria* is about the same size as the kunukusi, or bush-master, of a yellowish grey ground colour, with oval, ocellated, black spots on back and sides; belly speckled with yellow and grey, head broad and flat, and marked with black stripes, a dog's nose, and its lips serrate or notched.

The '*Boa Scytala of Linnæus*' attains a vast size in these retired and humid regions, often measuring thirty feet, but seldom met with, and therefore but little known. There is a smaller snake of this class, very often found, (usually five or six feet long, and rather thick in the middle,) with a dart of bone attached by muscular fibres to the upper jaw or palate, about two inches in length; back a dark luridous green; belly and sides clouded with black and ash-coloured spots; it has a horny substance at the end of the tail, similar to the kunukusi, lamaria, and others of that class.

Turtles.—There are two species of land turtles indigenous to these colonies; the first of which, the common turtle, eighteen or twenty inches in length, has an upper shell of an oval form, hexangular in shape, highly convex and elevated, of a yellowish brown colour, and very hard texture; the under shell slightly concave, and of a lighter colour. The head, feet, and tail resemble those of an European tortoise, which it is also like in its motions. They feed on fruits and vegetables, and are tolerable eating, but not equal to sea turtle.

The other species, called by the Indians Arracaca, is of a smaller size, its upper shell flat, of a dark

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dingy colour, and seems capable of a fine polish; body of the animal black, with light red spots; taste very indifferent.

There are, likewise, three different species of land-crabs; but being nearly alike in most respects, it will be sufficient to notice only—

The *Abenoura*, which is about the size of a man's hand, the body of a quadrangular shape, and a vivid blue colour; there are eight legs, four on each side, covered with bristly hairs, and towards the end tending to a fleshy hue. The abenoura burrows in the earth, near the sea-shore, and on the banks of rivers, from which they are dug out by the Indians, who are very fond of them; they are also esteemed a delicacy by the white inhabitants. The best manner of dressing them is to pick out all the flesh from the shell; the former is then made into a stew, with plenty of cayenne pepper, and then dished up in the shells: in this way they are very little inferior to turtle. The Indians, who do not understand the above method, merely boil or roast them in ashes, by which they are deprived of their luxurious flavour, and become not only insipid in taste, but disgusting to look at[1].

Rana Paradoxa. There are several species, or perhaps varieties, of frogs in Guiana, whose larvæ or tad-pole grows to a considerable length before the tail drops. In these cases it does not fall suddenly, but begins from the extremity to lose its vitality,

[1] Lieutenant-Colonel St. Clair, in his amusing West Indian recollections, gives this opinion respecting the cooking of the Demerara crab.

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shrink and slough off, till the perfect frog appears; previously, however, the legs are gradually protruded; the hinder ones are first observed, then the fore legs; the skin, which may be observed to grow to the body of the larva only in a small number of points, loosely envelops it, as it were, in a purse. This is, however, not peculiar to the species, but common, perhaps, to most of the genus. The above subject has a branchial opening, or gill aperture, only on one side of the head, by which it imbibes oxygen from the air contained in water, in the same manner as fishes do.

INSECTS.—The *Knife-Grinder*, or *Rhinoceros Beetle*, resembles an European beetle in shape and colour, but is of a much larger size, with a long, stout horn projecting from the end of the nose, and a smaller one beneath. With these horns the knife-grinder seizes on a young branch of a tree; then, setting its body in a rapid circular motion, an attrition is kept up for some time, until the wood is completely sawn through; the insect making, all the while, a deafening noise, exactly like that of a knife-grinder holding steel against the stone of his wheel. When the branch drops off, they strip it of the bark, upon which they subsist while it lasts; when a fresh supply is required, they again commence the usual operation.

The *Lantern-Carrier* is nearly three inches long, the body of a beautiful green, in shape something like the common moth, with four transparent wings, of a delicate light green, and on each of the under wings a spot brilliantly variegated with purple and

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yellow, not unlike the feathers in the peacock's tail; from the head rises a large proboscis, of an oval form, but tapering most towards the head, which is called the lantern, as it emits a bright light, said by some to be so powerful, that on putting two of them under a glass, a common print may be read by them. There are two other species of fire-flies, having a luminous spot under each wing, (so that the light can only be observed while they are flying,) which in the rainy season assemble in great numbers, appearing sometimes like so many intermitting sparks from fireworks.

The *Cacerlacke*, or *Cock Roach* (so well known as scarcely to need description) is about an inch and a half long, of an oval form, shaped like the common black beetle, but of a brown colour; the body of a soft texture, has six legs attached, head almost triangular. It sheds its skin once a year, when it obtains wings, but does not make much use of them, is of a noxious smell, and very destructive to wearing apparel of any kind; seldom appears in the day-time.

The *Scorpion*, a very formidable insect in these colonies, is usually about three inches long, of which the tail is one-third; the body shaped like a lobster, and of a grey colour; from its neck proceed two claws, having three divisions or joints, and armed at the end with a pair of sharp-pointed forceps; the other four pairs of legs resemble those of a spider; tail jointed, and at the extremity a crooked tube of a horny substance, containing a liquid, which the insect injects into the wound inflicted by it, and causes it to swell and become exceedingly painful. The

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scorpion preys upon other insects, and will not attack an individual unless in defence, for which it is always prepared, flying with its tail coiled over the body.

The *Centipede*, a kind of caterpillar, growing sometimes to the length of seven or eight inches, is provided with a tremendous pair of forceps, proceeding from the head, and, like the scorpion, inflicts a severe wound when irritated. The body consists of twenty articulations, each having a pair of legs attached, with which the insect runs with amazing quickness. These noxious vermin will sometimes breed in houses, but do not then attain above half the size before mentioned.

The *Bush Spider* is about two inches long, of an oval form, the abdomen covered with black hair; the fore part of the corslet is almost square, to which are connected five pairs of legs, about two inches long, armed at the end with two yellow claws; from the mouth project two teeth, in form of inward-pointed pincers. It makes a strong, thick web, but small in proportion to its size. It is asserted the females carry their young ones in a bag or web, which they deposit beneath the belly. The bite of this spider causes a violent inflammation, which no doubt proves fatal to its prey, which is composed of large and small insects.

The common *House Spider* is somewhat less than the preceding, of a light grey colour, making no web, but pursuing the cock roach and other insects when it grows dark; the bite is not dangerous to the human species, nor are its pincers strong enough to penetrate the skin.

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The *Tarantula* is about three-quarters of an inch in length, of a light green colour, with diagonal stripes of yellow; body divided into two parts, the lower or abdominal part of the form of a pea; fore feet of a bluish colour, with sharp-pointed claws, which it turns on every side as if it expected to be attacked. They inflict, when laid hold of, a painful and venomous wound, difficult to heal, but not endangering life. There is another species of tarantula, of a larger size, and black colour in the body, armed with yellow claws, chiefly confined to the forests.

The *Mary Bunter*, or *Guiana Wasp*, is not so large as those usually found in England, but its sting is much more painful; so much so, that very often they will draw blood from each sting, leaving a troublesome wound. There is another wasp, above an inch long, but very slender in shape; body of a purple colour, legs yellow, sting very long; their nests are in the roofs of houses, or in hollow trees.

The largest of the *Ants*, of which there are abundance in the colonies, are—

The *Black Ants*, about three-quarters of an inch in length; they build their nests deep in the earth, fetching their materials from the higher parts of trees. The bite causes considerable pain.

The *White Ants*, nearly as large as the preceding, form their habitations on the upper part of a tree, of incrusted earth, several feet in circumference, and containing many covered alleys. They are very destructive to household furniture, if they take up their residence in a dwelling.

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The *Red Ant* is a very destructive insect; its march is in dense columns of myriads at a time, destroying and devouring every thing in the way. These vermin, in utter contempt of the safeguard of lock and key, make their way through the smallest crevice, and take up their abode as long as any thing in the shape of food remains; it is said indeed that they will cover the whole body of a sleeping person, and there stick with the tenacity of leeches until satisfied. They have even been known to cause the death of animals, by lodging themselves in the hollow part of the foot and eating their way clear to the bone.

Butterflies are very numerous, and of every colour that it is possible to conceive; they are much larger than those of Europe, very similar in shape, but far surpassing them in splendour and variety of tints and shades.

The *Chigre* is a small species of sand-fly, which insinuates itself into the skin of the feet and toes, and if not disturbed, penetrates between the skin and the flesh, and forms a bag in which it encloses itself and deposits its eggs, which are very numerous; in a few days this bag increases to the size of a pea, when it bursts, and the young brood begin to form other bags; so that if not timely prevented they occasion severe ulcers, which are healed with considerable difficulty. There are several other insects which, like the former, enter the skin, but are not so formidable, as they only occasion an itching, and are easily destroyed by washing with soap and lemon juice.

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ICHTHYOLOGY. As may be expected, from the numerous rivers and extensive flat coast, British Guiana teems with fresh and salt water fish of every possible variety; as yet we are imperfectly acquainted with this as with the other kingdoms of nature, and I therefore gladly avail myself of the long experience and scientific knowledge of several gentlemen[1], to whom I am under many obligations for details relative to the important Colonies of Britain on the American Continent.

The *Low Low* (of the genus *Silurus*)[2] is the largest fish of the tropical rivers, very often measures twelve feet in length, weighing upwards of two cwt.; the head, which is flat and broad, is covered with a strong bony plate extending to the first back fin. This plate, as well as the first ray of the dorsal and pectoral fins, is a small spine, studded with white bony tubercles; the bones of the fins, about five inches long and sharply pointed, are most formidable weapons of defence, and can be erected or depressed as occasion requires. The back is of a bluish cast, belly white, mouth and fins yellow, hinder parts reddish. The *Low Low* feeds chiefly upon other fish,

[1] Dr. Hancock, and Mr. Hillhouse of Demerara, formerly an officer of the staff corps, and now a surveyor, who, it is melancholy to think, has received so little encouragement from the local government in his arduous and meritorious efforts to extend our knowledge of British Guiana.

[2] The genus *Silurus* have a remarkable peculiarity, noticed by Mr. Hillhouse; namely, that of the young fry entering the mouth of the female fish in cases of danger. I have observed the same with the shark, or a nearly similar fish, on the Madagascar coast.

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and although of so large a size is considered excellent eating.

The *Gillbagre* (*Silurus*) a sea fish, called by the Indians Weerokotoory, is similar in every respect to the preceding, but does not attain half the weight or size of the Low Low; the swim or sound of the former contains a highly glutinous substance, equal to that of the sturgeon. Although rather hard as food, it is exceedingly well flavoured.

The *Cuirass*, is of the same genus, and scarcely differing from the last-mentioned except in its colour, and in its not affording the isinglass substance peculiar to that species.

The *Cum Cum* is in its general conformation like the Cuirass, to which it also bears a resemblance in colour, but is slightly darker, rather more slender in shape, and consequently not so heavy. It feeds upon crabs and insects, and is well flavoured.

The *Lucannany*, or *Sun Fish*, is seldom more than seven or eight pounds in weight, or two feet in length; it has in its tail a golden circle that renders it perceptible to the Indians at the depth of three or four feet in the water, who shoot it with barbed arrows called wayuwakassy. It feeds upon smaller fish and insects, and it is excellent food, being firm, fat, and with but few bones. Owing to its extreme lusciousness it is difficult to salt or dry.

The *Arawan* is between two and three feet in length, its body somewhat compressed and covered with large scales, edged with a beautiful scarlet. As food this fish is particularly fine, but, like the last treated of, very fat and luscious.

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The *Tetroden*, or *Swell Belly* (so called from the power it possesses of inflating its body into a globular form, with only its head and tail slightly protruding, and in this state swimming almost out of the water,) is seldom more than six inches long, the body of a yellowish brown colour, crossed on the back with black bands. It is a very voracious fish, and considered fatally poisonous.

The *Haimora* (*Esox*) is a fine fish, growing to the length of four feet, and twelve pounds in weight. The power of its teeth and jaws is sufficient to cut off a man's hand at the wrist; it is exceedingly voracious, preying upon fish half its size,—is excellent eating, and forms the principal article of food with the Accaways of the Demerara river. The Indians have an ingenious mode of catching this fish, by means of a trap made of a cylindrical piece of bark, about five feet long and six inches in diameter, which, after being stopped at one end, and a live fish fastened to the bottom, is suspended horizontally by a string tied to the branch of some neighbouring tree, at about two feet below the surface; the *haimora* then, attracted by the bait, puts his head beyond the centre, the lower end of the cylinder sinks, it becomes vertical, and the fish, enclosed with its head downwards, is beyond the possibility of escape.

The *Pyara* is four or five feet in length, and weighs twelve pounds. It is remarkable for the length of the two lower front teeth; on the full grown male they are four inches long, fitting into two flexible apertures between the nostrils; it swims with great strength and velocity, and attacks all other fish. It

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is not particularly esteemed as food, being coarse and bony.

The *Cumuruaa* is a large fish, in most respects similar to the Haimora, with very large scales; it is good eating, and inhabits the creeks and rivers.

The *Separie*, or *Sting ray*, is in form much like the salt water Sting ray, with a long tapering tail like a whip-lash, and a narrow membranous fin, extending about eight inches on the under side backward from the point opposite the thorn, which is a strong sharp white pointed bone, four inches long, barbed on both sides, and a most formidable weapon, with which the Indians very often mount their arrows;—a wound inflicted by them is very difficult to heal, and apt to mortify, for which reason the fish has been said to be poisonous, but the extreme laceration occasioned by it no doubt gave rise to this assertion. These fish lie concealed under the mud, and very often inflict severe wounds on the feet of the Indians.

The *Arapaima*, a large fish, but little known to ichthyologists in general, is between six and seven feet long and five inches broad, and weighs about seventy pounds; of a silver grey on the back; belly white; the outside of the pectoral fins a vivid green; the scales are large, and their margins, particularly along the inferior and posterior parts, marked with a brilliant red or scarlet; the head is elongated, and the snout also, like that of a hog; teeth very small and sharp. This fish is very shy, and seldom caught.

The *Peri* is about two feet in length, of a flat shape, with a large head, wide mouth, and very sharp teeth. It has a fin on each side of the belly, and a single fin on the back, which is covered with shining scales of

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a bluish colour. It lives in fresh water, and is very rapacious, very often snapping off the legs of ducks and other water fowl, or even a man's foot; but the Indians, in order to frighten them, keep in constant motion while bathing, in which case the fish always remains at a distance.

The *Cartabac* is from fifteen to eighteen inches long; back of a darkish colour; sides light red or orange; belly white; the fins very soft and fleshy, and the whole body covered with small scales. It feeds on fruits, seeds, and insects, and is excellent food, being fat, and containing few bones; the taste somewhat resembles turbot. This fish is peculiarly fond of the seed of the carassa, and is in the highest state of perfection in the month of June, when that seed falls from the trees. The Indians boil the seed, and, enclosing it in a small basket, lower it about two feet in the water, and as the fish appear to devour it, shoot them with arrows.

The *Pacou* is from sixteen to twenty-four inches in length, sub-oval shape, with very small scales, of a silver grey ground colour, beautifully spotted with bright scarlet. It chiefly feeds upon aquatic plants and seeds, and is, when well prepared, quite a delicacy. The Weyra, an aromatic vegetable, eaten by the Pacou and other gregarious fishes, is thus employed by the Indians for the purpose of taking that valuable fish. A part of the falls, where the Weyra grows plentifully, and where shoals of the Pacou are perceived feeding, is enclosed with a wall of loose stones, about a foot above the surface of the water, leaving two narrow spaces for the fish to enter, which,

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having done, the apertures are speedily and silently closed with long staves and bundles—and the fish are thus confined within a temporary dam or pond. In this manner, from 200 to 300 Pacou, weighing, on an average, seven pounds each, and a hundred weight of other fish, are taken at a time. The Pacou are split, salted and dried on the rocks, and when cured will fetch a gilder each.

The *Morocoto*, or *Osibu*, usually between two and three feet in length, feeds entirely on herbs and fruits, and is a most delicious fish, equal to the Pacou, or in fact any other natural to the tropics. It is in taste nearer resembling flesh than fish, and eagerly sought after by the epicure.

The *Bashaw* grows to the length of thirty inches, somewhat resembling the last in shape, but not so much in demand as food, the taste being rough and strong.

The *Dawalla*, or *Piava*, is shaped something like a trout, and also in some degree resembles it in taste, not however possessing the fine flavour of that fish, being dry and insipid.

The *Lowkiddy*, or *Yellow-back* (Silurus), is about fifteen inches long, with a large head, and two very long whiskers extending from the upper jaw, and four shorter from the lower; the body is small in proportion, with small scales. It is pretty free from bones, and the taste tolerable, but not generally esteemed.

The *Yarrow* (Esox) is about a foot long, and when the water is drying off it burrows in the mud, and has been found[1] living under the earth when there

[1] Dr. Hancock.

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was no water at all. It is fat, free from bone, and very good eating; it feeds on fruits, seeds, and insects.

The *Snake Fish* is about two feet six inches long, and an inch and a half in diameter; of a dark brown colour on the upper part, underneath of dull yellow, studded with dark spots; the head is very soft, snout flattened, eyes small, and near the point of the jaw. The greatest singularity connected with this fish is, that its heart will continue to move several hours after the fish is dead. The bladder, or sound, running along the spine, contains air that burns when put in contact with the light.

There are numerous other species of small fish; but my limits will not admit any further description. The above are those most generally known, and esteemed for their fine flavour or other peculiarities.

CHAPTER V.

POPULATION, WHITE, NEGRO, AND ABORIGINAL.—VARIETIES OF THE INDIAN TRIBES; LANGUAGE, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, &c.—BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

It has been more difficult than the unreflecting reader would suppose, to obtain any thing like a connected view of the population in our different colonies; and Guiana is no exception to the rule. I will endeavour to show the population of Demerara and Essequibo distinct from that of Berbice, especially the Negro inhabitants.

No early census of Guiana is obtainable. The fol-

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lowing is a Summary of the Slave Population of the United Colony of Demerara and Essequibo, from the year 1817 to the year 1832, at intervals of three years :—

When Registered.	Males.		Females.		Total.	Under 30 Years of Age.	Above 30 Years of Age.	Excess of Males.	Excess of Africans.	Excess of Creoles.	Births.	Deaths.	Decrease on the Three Years.
	Africans.	Creole.	Africans.	Creole.									
31st May, 1817*	26,725	17,046	15,499	17,893	77,163	46,350	30,813	10,379	7285	...	...	...	...
31st May, 1820	24,658	18,569	14,471	19,678	77,376	39,940	37,436	9,078	882	...	4868	7140	2272
31st May, 1823	21,767	19,457	13,005	20,748	74,977	36,605	38,372	7,471	...	5,433	4512	7188	2676
31st May, 1826	18,898	19,860	11,592	21,032	71,382	35,257	36,125	6,134	...	10,402	4494	7634	3140
31st May, 1829	16,384	20,757	10,343	21,983	69,467	35,393	34,074	4,815	...	16,013	4684	5731	1047
31st May, 1832	13,519	20,830	9,052	22,166	65,517	34,359	31,158	3,181	...	...	4086	7016	2930

* Between 1817 and 1820 were considerable Importations of Slaves from other Colonies; some few also between 1820 and 1823, and afterwards. At the Census of 1829, there were of *males* under three years of age, 2,319; of *females*, 2,365; and in 1832, males, 1,974; females, 2,365: thus indicating a rising preponderance in females, the preliminary to an increasing population.

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The Slave Population of the District of Demerara and Essequibo, on the 31st May, 1832, was thus classified :—

African males, 13,519; Creole ditto, 20,830; total males, 34,349. African females, 9052; Creole ditto, 22,116; total females, 31,168; grand total registered for 31st May, 1832,—65,517. Of whom are males, under three years, 1974; females, ditto, 2112; above three, and not above five years, 2744; between five and ten, 5401; ten and sixteen, 6115; sixteen and thirty, 16,013; thirty and forty, 8345; forty and fifty, 13,585; fifty and sixty, 7179; sixty and seventy, 1613; seventy and eighty, 363; eighty and ninety, 40; ninety and a hundred, 7; aged one hundred and upwards, 2; ages unknown, presumed to be absentees, 24; total, 65,517.

Decrease by death since the preceding Registration :—males, under ten years of age, 770; females, ditto, 714; males, between ten and twenty, 216; females, ditto, 229; males, between twenty and thirty, 254; females, ditto, 194; males, between thirty and forty, 637; females, ditto, 345; males, between forty and fifty, 1277; females, ditto, 622; males upwards of fifty, 1121; females, ditto, 637; total, 7016. Of whom were Africans, 3850; ditto Creoles, 3166.

Births since last Registration :—males, under three years of age, 1974; females, ditto, 2112; total, 4086.

Decrease on the past three years, 2930.

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The Slave Population in each parish of Demerara and Essequibo, 31st May, 1832, was—

PARISHES.	Males.	Females	Total.	Births under 3 yrs. of Age.		Births per Cent*.	Deaths.
				Male	Fem.		
St. Mary ..	3394	2907	6301	237	224	7, 1922/6301	9, 1891/6301
St. Paul ...	4510	4262	8772	300	338	7, 699/2193	8, 1761/2193
St. Geo. & St. Andrew	3993	4040	8033	280	297	7, 1449/8033	7, 7792/8033
St. Matthew	2934	2670	5604	158	162	5, 695/1401	11, 338/1401
St. Mark ..	2570	2063	4633	116	108	4, 3863/4633	10, 4179/4633
St. Swithin	2059	1851	3910	104	104	5, 135/391	13, 307/391
St. Luke ..	2930	2605	5535	167	193	6, 62/123	11, 463/11107
St. Peter ..	3015	2872	5887	178	155	5, 3865/3887	13, 959/3887
St. James ..	2126	2040	4166	82	106	4, 1068/5083	13, 1171/5083
St. John ...	2471	2146	4617	128	144	5, 4115/4617	11, 2813/4617
The Trinity	4347	3712	8059	224	281	6, 2186/8059	10, 616/8059
	34349	31168	65517	1974	2112		
Slaves attached to Plantation	28083	24394	53477	1558	1705		
Personal and Unattached	6266	5774	10040	416	407		

* Since the Registration of May, 1829.

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The following Census shows the total Population of Demerara alone, 31st October, 1829 :—

No. of Company.	Battalion of Militia.	DISTRICTS.	Whites.			Free, Black, and Coloured.			Grand Total.
			Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	
1	2	From pl. Thòmas to pl. Lusignan, parish of St. George and St. Mary	81	7	88	23	42	65	153
2	...	From pl. Annandale to pl. Lancaster, parish of St. Paul and St. Mary	87	1	88	29	37	66	154
3	...	From pl. Cane Grove to Mahaica Village, parish of St. Mary	71	10	81	67	113	180	261
4	...	From Abery to pl. Bath, parish of St. Mary	28	3	31	38	74	112	143
1	3	From pl. La Penitence, including Canal No 3, parish of St. Matthew	82	20	102	36	51	87	189
2	...	From pl. La Grange to pl. Waller's Delight, parish of St. Swithin	52	7	59	33	44	77	136
3	...	From pl. La Parfait Harmonie to pl. Wales, parish of St. Mark	60	11	71	25	33	58	129
4	...	From pl. Vriesland to Soesdyk, parish of St. Mark and part of St. Matthew	32	2	34	38	46	84	118
5	...	From pl. San Souci on the lower side, to Dinabuna on the upper, parishes of St. Mark and St. Matthew	23	9	32	55	51	106	138
6	...	From Windsor Forest to Bocrasirie Creek, parishes of St. Swithin and St. Luke	80	2	82	25	28	53	135
7	...	From pl. Zeelugt to Beverhauts, parish of St. Luke.	35	23	58	37	45	82	140
...	...	From pl. Mara to pl. Loo, Upper Demerara River, parish of St. Luke	31	15	46	57	53	110	156
			662	110	772	463	617	1080	1852

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A similar Return for Essequibo, at the same date, gives the Population thus :—

No. of Company.	Battalion of Militia.	DISTRICT.	Whites.			Free, Black, and Coloured.			Grand Total.
			Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	
2	1	From Fort Island, inclusive of both sides of the river upwards	9	13	22	61	58	119	141
3	...	Leguan Island and Hog Island, parish of St. Peter	110	32	142	52	51	103	245
4	...	From pl. Caledonia to pl. Maria's Lodge, parish of St. James	86	15	101	34	37	71	172
5	...	From Vergeeleegen to Aboeneboenaba, parish of St. John	33	13	46	176	186	362	408
1	2	From Caro Caro Creek to pl. Hoff Van Holland, parish of St. John	54	12	66	62	66	128	194
2	...	From pl. Alliance to Cattle Town, parish of St. John	63	37	100	28	38	66	166
3	...	From pl. Taymouth Manor to Shamrock Hall	121	16	137	29	34	63	200
			476	138	614	442	470	912	1526

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General Census and Appraisement of George Town of the 31st of October, 1829 :—

DISTRICTS.	White.			Free, Black, and Coloured.			Grand Total.	Appraised Value of Lots and Buildings in 1830.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.		
Kingston	66	68	134	158	277	435	569	*f.* 508,040
North Cumingsburg	117	85	202	231	359	590	792	1,355,350
South Cumingsburg, including Company Path with respect to Appraisement	202	108	310	375	630	1005	1315	1,554,340
Robbe Town	144	32	176	78	135	213	389	1,069,200
New Town, including Colombia	52	21	73	29	58	87	160	362,000
Stabrook	81	69	150	80	182	262	412	427,350
Werken Rust	148	118	266	816	495	811	1077	778,660
Charlestown	86	84	170	183	299	482	652	407,750
Lacy Town	66	73	139	175	308	483	622	
	962	658	1620	1625	2743	4368	5988	6,462,692

The Population of Berbice in 1764 was—whites, 116; male negroes, 1308; female ditto, 1307; children, 745: total, 3476.

BERBICE SLAVE POPULATION from 1817 to 1831.									
Yrs.	Males.	Females	Total.	Increased by Birth.		Decreased by Death.		Decrease by Manumission.	
				Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Ma.	Fe.
1817	13,802	10,747	24,549	...	...	...	...	...	...
1819	13,327	10,441	23,768	...	...	...	...	...	...
1822	12,007	10,349	22,356	827	822	987	1249	3	15
1825	11,423	10,041	21,464	773	740	1348	1052	12	20
1828	11,358	9,541	20,899	919	869	1029	707	47	56
1831	11,020	9,625	20,645	820	770	1092	795	49	69

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General Population of Demerara and Essequibo, 31st October, 1829; and of Berbice, agreeably to Census of 1827, and Slave Registration of 1831:—

	Whites.			Free Black, and Coloured.			Grand Total.	Slaves on the 31st May, 1829.			Grand Total.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.		Males.	Females.	Total.	
Demerara	662	110	772	463	617	1080	1852	...	...	39,199	41,051
Essequibo	476	138	614	442	470	912	1526	...	...	23,553	25,079
Total in the Country	1138	248	1386	905	1087	1992	3378	33,833	28,869	62,572	66,130
Ditto in George Town	962	658	1620	1625	2743	4368	5988	3,209	3,407	6,616	12,604
General Total	2100	906	3006	2530	3830	6360	9366	37,092	32,276	69,368	78,734
Berbice	419	104	523	454	707	1161	...	10,998	9,420	20,418	22,102
Grand Total of Mouths	2519	1010	3529	2984	4537	7521	9366	48,090	41,696	89,786	100,836

According to the Returns under the Slave Emancipation Act, the number of Slaves in British Guiana was 84,915, of an average value of 114*l.* each. The

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relative value of the Slaves, 9,729,047*l.*; and the proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* to which the colony is entitled, is 4,297,117*l.*

The total Census (that of 1827) furnished by the Board of Trade, is as follows :—

COUNTY OR DISTRICT.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Slaves.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Town	130	49	324	530	695	681
First District of the East Coast	17	14	7	14	650	533
Second ditto	28	6	10	16	769	594
Third ditto	13	...	8	3	647	488
First District of the West Coast	26	4	5	11	1024	858
Second ditto	17	...	2	2	560	486
First River District	35	4	3	7	1383	1179
Second ditto	31	8	9	8	1205	1015
Third ditto	50	12	50	56	1270	1105
Fourth ditto	24	3	9	22	905	720
West Bank Camp District	23	2	20	21	841	755
East Bank	25	2	7	17	948	807
Total	419	104	454	707	10897	9221

Total—Male, 11,770; Female, 10,032.

The native Indians of this coast have long engaged the attention of Europeans, and indeed imperatively call for the protection of the British Government. When this part of the South American continent was first visited by the mariners of the old world, it was found densely peopled; but few, alas, now remain to indicate the aboriginal inhabitants of a land which

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the Whites have made their property,—offering a melancholy contrast to the progress of European colonization and civilization in the Eastern hemisphere.

Mr. Fowel Buxton, and his philanthropic coadjutors, are now directing public attention to this humane and indeed important subject; the following details will therefore be acceptable to all who think it of little consequence whether man be carved in ebony or in ivory, each and all claiming the attention of the patriot, the philanthropist, and Christian.

The principal tribes in and around British Guiana, are the—1. Arrawaks; 2. Accawai; 3. Carabisce; 4. Warrows; and 5. Macoosies. The first mentioned border on the coast line—the second are removed further inland—and in stature, colour, and some other respects, are like the first. The third inhabit the upper country between the Essequibo and Cayuny—they are described as having the manliness and intrepidity of all highland tribes, and as being fairer than the Arrawaks, or lowlanders. According to tradition, they once inhabited the West India islands; it is more probable, however, that the West India islands were originally peopled by the Caribisce from the main land. The fourth, or Warrows, occupy the coast between the Pomeroon and Orinoko, and are a black short hardy race of fishermen and sailors, subsisting chiefly by boat building. The fifth, or Macoosies, reside in the deep recesses of the forests of the interior, and are numerous, very industrious, extremely cunning, and implacable in their

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revenge; probably they are the aborigines of the country, and fleeing before more civilized tribes, as we find to be the case in every part of the Eastern hemisphere.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to estimate the number of Indians south of the Rippanooney; about 5000 consider themselves under the protection of the British Government; receiving triennial presents and annual supplies; about 20,000 are migratory, unattached to any particular government, and removing at pleasure from the Orinoque to the Brazils, Cayenne, or Surinam, as necessity (*i. e.* want of food) or inclination may dictate. Mr. Hillhouse, of Demerara, the generous and indefatigable friend of the Indians, to whose philanthropic labours and varied talents I am indebted for the following details of the different nations within our boundary, places them as in the annexed order :—

1. Caribisce; 2. Accaway; 3. Arrawaak; 4. Warrow; 5. Macusi; 6. Paramuni; 7. Attaraya; 8. Attamacka.

The Arrawaaks, it is justly observed, demand our first consideration, as living within the immediate vicinity of the plantations, being the most civilized, and whose services have been the most frequently required. As we are also most familiar with them, their character will serve as a model of general approximation for all other tribes.

This nation can furnish about 400 men, all perfectly acquainted with the use of fire arms, and particularly serviceable in the intersected country and swamps adjoining the plantations.

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They consist of the following families, or castes :—

1. Maratakayu; 2. Queyurunto; 3. Wooneseedo; 4. Demaridy; 5. Corobahady; 6. Wurallikaddy; 7. Ebusuana; 8. Dacamocaddy; 9. Aramukunyu; 10. Baboana; 11. Kanahea—Macoveyu; 12. Daharabetady; 13. Carabunury; 14. Nebebeetaddy; 15. Seewedey; 16. Jorobalina; 17. Haduadafunha; 18. Boerybetaddy; 19. Caruafuddy; 20. Bakurucaddy; 21. Euboquaddy; 22. Wakuyaddy; 23. Ehbehselio; 24. Wareerobaquady; 25. Aramkritu; 26. Kariwhete; 27. Eubotaddy.

The cast of blood is derived from the mother, and the family genealogy preserved with the greatest care, as a preservative from incestuous intercourse—one family not being allowed to intermarry within itself. The children of the Maratakayu father cannot, therefore, be Maratakayu; but if the mother be Queyurunto, the children are also Queyurunto, and can marry into the father's family, but not the mother's.

Marriage is frequently contracted by the parents for their children, when infants. In this case, the young man is bound to assist the family of his wife till she arrives at puberty; he then takes her where he pleases, and establishes his own household. But young men and women who are free, at a more advanced age, consult their own inclinations without any ceremony beyond the mere permission of the parent, which is never withheld but on account of family feuds.

Polygamy is allowed and practised by all those who have the means of maintenance for a plurality of wives. This is generally the case with the chiefs or captains, who have sometimes three or four wives.

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All the inconveniences common in Europe, where there are more mistresses than one in the house, are also felt here; and envy, jealousy, and henpecking, are perfectly understood by their effects in the Arrawaak seraglio. The interference of the husband, with a stout bush rope, is frequently necessary to restore tranquillity, and he is often driven out of the house by the din of domestic warfare [1].

The captain commands the services of the families of his different wives on emergencies; and, in return, he is required to become the principal in all feuds, and to exercise towards them all the rights of hospitality, in their most extended sense. On any scarcity of provisions, or prevalence of sickness, all the branches of the family flock to the dwelling of the chief, and live at his expense, without the least doubt of a welcome. It therefore frequently happens, that the chief is fairly eaten out of house and home, and his cassava field completely exhausted. In this predicament he unties his hammock, puts his family into his canoe, and starts off to pay his round of visits amongst his friends, at whose expense he lives, till his next crop of provisions coming in, enables him to return to his home. The visiting is a complete system, and is always made to occupy three months of the twelve.

The Arrawaak, therefore, in preparing his cassava fields, calculates upon provisions for his family and guests for nine months, and he is never disappointed in the hospitality of his friends for the supply of the

[1] Petty family feuds or quarrels are unknown.

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other three; although this might be a dangerous experiment in a more civilized community.

The Arrawaaks, seldom more than five feet four inches in height, are stout and plump in proportion, but not muscular. Their necks are short, and their ancles, hands, and feet, particularly those of the women, remarkably small. The eye slopes upward towards the temples, and the forehead is uniformly lower than that of Europeans. This trait of physiognomy may be supposed indicative of inferiority of intellect; but it is incomparably superior to the cranium of the Negro, whose untutored powers of mind are as much inferior to those of the Indian as are those of the latter to the mental calibre of the European. Some of the castes are almost as fair as the Spaniards or Italians[1]—whilst those who live near the sea are of a very dark brown, sometimes as dark as what is called a yellow skinned negro; but the straight strong black hair, small features, and well-proportioned limbs, are peculiarities that can never make the Indian be mistaken for the African, even if alike in colour. On the birth of children the husband in his hammock receives the congratulations of his friends in due form; and the women of the village are particularly attentive to the wants of the mother. An Indian will bear any insult or inconvenience from his child tamely rather than

[1] Dr. Hancock saw some Indian women at the Portuguese fort on the Rio Branco, within two degrees of the equator, who kept themselves within doors, and did not use the Indian paints; and, in respect to colour, they might have passed for Europeans.

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administer personal correction; Mr. Hillhouse strangely, and I think erroneously, asserts, that the consequence is, the children do not show one-half of the respect to the parents that the extraordinary affection of the latter entitles them to; there is great paternal, but very little filial affection.

A child is named by a pe-i-man, or magician, at any age. An offering of considerable value is necessary on this occasion, as, according to the fee given to propitiate the pe-i-man, so is the virtue of his incantations proportioned. An unnamed Indian is thought to be the certain victim of the first sickness or misfortune that he may encounter;—accordingly, only the very poorest of them are without names. They frequently take the names of Europeans in addition to their Indian appellations, more especially when they have been in the habit of receiving obligations from them; and they frequently ask an European to name a child, by which he enjoys the privilege of making an occasional present.

The secret attachment between the old Dutch proprietors and the Indians, consisted in the colonists taking Indian women for their house-keepers; and of course acquiring some knowledge of their language, and becoming what may be termed 'broomstick relations.' The Indian is proud of these connections, and though he makes it a point to tease, harass, and defraud the European usurper who has no connection with him—yet, the moment a family compact is entered into, and the Indian is addressed in his own language, nothing can exceed his faith, attachment and honourable conduct to his white

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relation. His heart opens at once, and instead of deceit, suspicion, and distrust, he becomes open and confiding.

This was common during the time of the Dutch government; but, as the taste of the English seems to be directed in a darker channel, the ties of confidence have become entirely extinct, and all that the Indian now cares for, is to levy contributions on all who are simple enough to pay them.

Those who live in immediate contact with us, are so degraded by the practice of all our vices, without any encouragement to copy our virtues, that a humane mind is disgusted at the picture. To such, how bitter must be the reflection, though undoubtedly true, that this horrible state of abandonment is entirely caused by our criminal and hard-hearted neglect of the first duties of humanity. The Dutch were angels to us [1].

The Indian, having no inducement to carry on trade or commerce, cultivates, during three or four months, as much provision as is necessary for the consumption of his family during the year. The rest of the time is spent in hunting, fishing, visiting, drinking, and dancing. His life is therefore a life of pleasure; and it is with great unwillingness that he undertakes a superfluous degree of labour, by which he relinquishes a present enjoyment for the prospect of future provision, about which he has no care.

[1] To the labour and industry of the Indians, the Dutch were indebted for the success of their early settlements: the example of negro slavery must have contributed to bring them to their present state.

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He takes no thought for to-morrow; Mr. Hillhouse supposes that this is the fault of the climate not of the man, but he should visit Bengal, where, under a similar climate, the thrifty and provident Hindoo accumulates not merely for the morrow, but for posterity.

The *lex talionis* is observed rigidly, and tends greatly to prevent the increase of population; but, in this respect, the influence of Europeans is productive of the happiest effect; for though an Indian will hear of no compromise from another Indian in a feud of blood, he will yet faithfully abide by the determination and award of a favourite European, and will consent to a commutation, even for the life of the dearest relative when proposed by his 'backra matty.' Without this interference, the accidental death of one individual frequently entails destruction on the families of both the slayer and the slain. Most of the blood feuds originate in jealousy and the revenge of connubial injuries, of which they are highly resentful.

The duties of hospitality are paramount with all barbarous nations. When a stranger, and particularly an European, enters the house of an Indian, every thing is at his command. The women prepare the pepper-pot, and bake a hot cake of cassava bread; a bowl of caseri is produced (a fermented preparation from the sweet potatoe), and the head of the family strives to forestall all his wants. The young men immediately leave their hammocks to hunt and fish; every article of arms or furniture, except the toys of the children, is at his disposal, and he is absolutely

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oppressed with the kindness of his welcome. This is exceedingly inconvenient in the sequel, because all offices of kindness are supposed to be reciprocal. When the Indian pays the white man a visit, the difference in value of his furniture and equipments causes a return in kind to be too expensive. The Indian therefore says, 'When you visit me, I give you every thing I have in the world; but when I visit you, you refuse me the commonest articles of your daily expenditure.' Therefore, though they bow to our acknowledged mental superiority, they despise us for our stinginess and inhospitality; and while giving us all due credit for the virtues of the head, they say we have 'no heart for any thing but money.' They have not a community of goods, individual property being distinctly marked amongst them; but this property is so simple, and so easily acquired, that they are perpetually borrowing and lending, without the least care about payment; and, in the purchase of corials and canoes, their most expensive articles, the buyer is frequently credited, to what we should call a ridiculous extent, especially as there seldom exists the means of enforcing payment.

It is reckoned highly indecent in the men to caress or notice the women in public; and our practice, in this respect, appears to them highly contemptible. But the Arrawaak, when secluded from public observation, exhibits as sincere and unreserved an affection for his domestic connections as the more civilized of any nation; and though apt to fly into the extremes of passion, when influenced by jealousy and

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intemperance, he is, on the whole, a good husband and relative, and a most kind and indulgent parent.

The Indians are considered by many deficient of personal courage. It is true, that being of less stature, and possessing less bodily strength, they are unable to cope equally with Europeans, or even negroes. However, in wars amongst themselves, where they are more equally matched, they display a fierce determination that despises all danger; and their combats are always *à l'outrance*. An Indian, who is deputed to revenge a murder, will follow his enemy for years together, publicly avowing his purpose, which he will not relinquish but with life. Their principal valuable qualities are agility, dexterity, and the intuitive tact of tracking or discovering footsteps in the bush. Their sense of smell is so great, that they will track any animal (man not excepted) by merely smelling the stones or earth on which he may have recently trod. Where an European can discover no indication whatever, an Indian will point out the footsteps of any number of negroes, and will state the precise day in which they have passed; and, if on the same day, he will state the hour. In all pursuits of deserters, and reconnoissances of negro camps, this qualification makes them indispensably necessary, as an expedition without Indian guides has little chance of success.

The Indians manufacture bows, arrows, hammocks, baskets, canoes, and corials, and apparatus for fishing, with considerable ingenuity; but, at a certain pitch, their art is stationary; and there does not appear to have been any improvement or new idea

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struck out, in any of these branches, from time immemorial. This is the case with all barbarous nations, till they begin to work the metals; which material, by its fusion and ductility, opens a new train of ideas, and enlarges the field for improvement *ad infinitum*; whereas, in works of wood, bone, or stone, all possible excellence is very soon acquired, and improvement quickly ceases. Their animal perceptions are astonishingly acute; and their speed in their native woods, and over the most difficult ground, far outstrips that of Europeans, few of whom can keep pace with them, even for a short distance. No European march could ever come into competition with the astonishingly rapid movements of the Indian regiments in the army of Bolivar. An expedition composed exclusively of Indians, will go over three times the ground in the same time that can be traversed by European troops; and this superiority of locomotion renders them more than a match for double their numbers, in their native wilds. They can, moreover, live comfortably where European troops must starve, and they require no commissariat. With ten lbs. of cassava bread, an Indian can keep the field for three weeks or a month; his gun will be always in order, and his ammunition dry and serviceable. It is impossible to surprise him; and, with a commander who can keep pace with him, and in whom he has confidence, the Indian ranger cannot be equalled by the best troops in the known world, for service in a tropical region, and under the burning sun of the line.

Mr. Hillhouse, whose extensive knowledge of the

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subject entitles his opinions to the utmost attention, considers the settlement of the Indians as so many petty republics, without any universally acknowledged authority; and he strongly recommends our pursuing the same line of policy as that of the Spanish missions on the Orinoque; i. e. placing an intelligent and accomplished European in authority over the Indians, and forming them into military detachments and establishments.

To proceed with the description of the Indians:—

The Accawai occupy the country between the rapids and the high mountains of the interior. In the Demerara River, their number is about 700, and in the Massaroony about 1500. They are not superior to the Arrawaaks in stature, but their skins are of a deeper red, and they are more resolute and determined in their enterprizes. They are recognized, at first sight, by a large lump of arnotto stuck upon their hair over the forehead, with which they paint themselves, both to strike terror, and as a defence against the bite of insects, by its properties. In character they are quarrelsome, warlike, and capable of enduring considerable fatigue and hardship; but such determincd republicans in principle, that it is difficult to preserve subordination amongst them; and their chiefs have less consideration, out of the limits of their family connexions, than the chiefs of other tribes. As soldiers, a well-trained body of Accaways would be capable of performing the most desperate enterprizes; but their commander must be endowed with some most peculiar and

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acknowledged claim to superiority, or they will not yield the least obedience to his authority [1].

The Accaways are dreaded by all the other tribes; and wherever they settle, they soon make a clear neighbourhood. They are the pedlars and news-carriers of the whole eastern coast; and their numbers in the interior being superior to those of all the other tribes together, they could easily subdue them, were there any thing like union or subordination amongst them; but, from the want of these, they are constantly at war amongst themselves; and the extent to which they carry on the slave-trade keeps their numbers from increasing: so that the other tribes, under the patronage of the colonial government, still preserve their liberty.

From their constant locomotion, no accurate census can be taken of their number. It differs every year, and every month of the year, so numerous are their expeditions and emigrations to and from the Orinoque, the Brazils, and Cayenne; but wherever they travel, they trade and fight—and the travelling kit of an Accaway Indian is as well calculated to drive a bargain as to sack a village.

They are fully as improvident and irregular in their habits as the other tribes; but they calculate their interest to a nicety, and the greatest number of

[1] At the Portuguese fort, St. Joaquim, on the Rio Branco or Parima, there are several hundred Indians, some employed as soldiers, others as agriculturists, and many in manufacturing hammocks and cotton cloths.

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Accaways will always be found where they are best paid and most encouraged.

Being as hospitable as they are quarrelsome, an Accaway village is always on the alert to receive properly either a friend or an enemy; and, as the sudden and frequent visits of the numbers that are constantly travelling demands an extraordinary supply of provisions, their cultivation is double that of the other tribes. If any period of general truce be allowed amongst them, it is during the dry season, in which they prepare and plant their numerous and extensive fields of cassava. But no sooner have they provided a supply for all goers and comers during the ensuing year, than they set to work manufacturing warlike implements of all kinds; and if, by the sale of a few articles, they can muster a cargo of European goods and a few fire-arms, they set off to the Spanish or Portuguese frontier, to barter them for dogs, hammocks, &c.

In these expeditions several families join, as in the caravans of Asia; their only care being to supply themselves with a good stock of bread. They then march for three days, and halt for two; during which they hunt and barbacot (smoke-dry) their game, and are in no distress for provisions, for even two or three months, which is frequently the duration of their journeys.

In these marches, when they approach a village, it signifies not of what nation, they prepare to attack it. If it be on the alert, and strong enough to resist, they conclude a treaty of commerce, eat together, and trade, without reserve or suspicion; but if the

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place be weak, or the inhabitants off their guard, those who resist are instantly massacred, and the remainder become slaves to the victors [1].

Their audacity, in these predatory excursions, is astonishing. If a party can muster eight or ten stand of fire-arms, it will fight its way through all the mountain tribes, though at open war with them; and, by the rapidity of their marches, and nightly enterprizes, which they call kanaima, they conceal the weakness of their numbers, and carry terror before them.

On their return from a successful expedition, they prepare for a general and tremendous drinking match. For several days prior to the piworry feast, all the women in the vicinity are assembled. They sit round a fire, on which the cakes of cassava, made about three-fourths of an inch thick, are baked till they are brown throughout. Each woman, then moistening her mouth with a little water, chews a piece of bread till it is perfectly saturated with saliva; she then strains it in her mouth, and spits out the moisture into a vessel in the centre. When a sufficient quantity of this extract is accumulated, water is added, and it is thrown into a hollow tree, or corial, cleaned out for the purpose, which contains two or three hundred gallons. There it is left to ferment; and as soon as it begins to get sour, the guests assemble, and for two or three days continue to drink, till the whole supply is exhausted. On the second day's

[1] The Portuguese have abolished the slavery of the Indians on Rio Branco.

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debauch, inebriety is general; and all the consequences then ensue as regularly as at an Irish fair: quarrels, broken heads, pitched battles, incontinence, and frequently murder.

These orgies are common to all the Indian nations, and seem to be their great besetting sin, since numerous feuds and fatal consequences frequently ensue, from affronts given or received in these parties; and it is not improbable that the character the Accaways have for frequent quarrelling, may originate in the superior excess to which they indulge themselves in these feasts beyond the other nations, who are more moderate in their debauches. The piworry is very diuretic, and, notwithstanding the insensible state of inebriety brought on by the enormous quantities of it they imbibe at one sitting, few inconveniences result from it as to health. Now and then a slight fever occurs, from exposure to the night air, with the damp earth for a bed; but its ill effects bear no comparison with those resulting from the use of rum. The Indian women, from frequently chewing the piworry, contract a scorbutic redness in their gums. They are frequently annoyed with the tooth-ache, and soon lose their teeth. The African, Otaheite, and Sandwich Islands women are similarly affected, from preparing a similar drink, in which millet is used.

Throughout all the tribes of Guiana, however differing in habits or language, the devotion to piworry is universal, and its mode of manufacture the same. It fills the cup of welcome on the arrival of the stranger, and is the pledge of good wishes on

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his departure; and, though an European stomach may rebel against the mode of its preparation, the rejection of it will, undoubtedly, be resented as an insult to the house and person of the host.

During the dry season, the chiefs, or heads of families, exercise more authority than at other periods. The security of a supply of ground provisions for the ensuing year is a point in which all are concerned, and to this all are bound to contribute to their utmost. The chief, therefore, calls his young men around him, and, selecting a fertile spot, he proceeds, with axes and cutlasses, to fell the trees with which it is covered, which are left to dry as they fall, and in six or eight weeks they are collected into heaps and burnt. The ashes, forming a strong manure, are mixed up with the soil, and cassava being planted, in nine months the roots are ripe for use. A succession of fields are necessary to keep up the supply during the year; and two crops are all that can be expected from the same field. One Indian will clear, and, with his wife, plant two or three acres in as many weeks; and seven or eight acres will supply them with a year's food: so that ten or twelve weeks in the year are absolutely all that are required for actual labour, and the rest of the time remains for pleasure, hunting, and fishing.

Those who are lazy or absent, upon these occasions, receive most severe chastisement, or are driven out of the village; and as their natural impatience of restraint frequently provokes the culprit to an insolent retort when reprimanded, the punishment, which is uniformly inflicted with the moussy or club, is not

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unfrequently fatal. At other times, this stretch of authority on the part of the chief would unite all hands against him; but here they support him, from the urgency of the occasion, and his harshness is not resented.

The Accawai are most determined humourists; and in their choice of nicknames, by which they all familiarly address each other, they are careful to select some animal, or peculiar part of one, from which they form the most ridiculous comparison with some *outré* quality of the individual[1]. They do not see an European twice without affixing to him some ridiculous epithet, most mortifying to his personal vanity. Rank and title have no influence with them in waving this custom; and even a governor or protector has no benefit from his station, but by being made appear more conspicuously ridiculous. This is very annoying to individuals in authority over them; but it is meant as a trial of temper, and, if passed over or merely laughed at, they yield, in return, a most prompt obedience, and an alacrity in the execution of the duties required of them unknown to the other tribes. In fact, the Accawai are more difficult to command by strangers than the others; but if they see that you will not be put out of humour, nor lose your self-possession, they will soon evince an affection and devotion, increasing as they become better acquainted with the object of it, and yielding to no instances of European fidelity. But the first

[1] This is also the case with the New Hollanders and several African nations I have met.

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impression is with them indelible; and if it be unfavourable, no conciliatory attempt or after efforts can efface it. An Accaway, if once a friend, is always a friend; but, if in enmity with you, he can never be reconciled. With indifferent persons, the Accaways are very Jews at a bargain; but they will sell to a favourite for one-half what they demand of a stranger; and they seldom pay debts till they are forced to do it. They manufacture the woraly poison, which they use in shooting feathered game, by means of the woody fibre of the centre of the leaf of the palm. This is blown through a long tube of ten feet, which is also a kind of small palm, hollowed for the purpose, and lined with a hollow, smooth reed, called a *sody*. The common woraly has little effect upon the larger animals; but the macusi woraly is sufficiently strong to destroy large animals, and even man. After witnessing various methods of preparation, Mr. Hillhouse is inclined to think that the vegetable extract is merely the medium through which the poison is conveyed; the common woraly owing its poisonous quality to the infusion of the large ants, called Muneery, and the stronger kind from the fangs of venomous reptiles, particularly the Coony Coochy, which is the most venomous of all known snakes.

The Muneery gives the Indians, by its bite, a fever of twelve hours, with the most excruciating pain; and a decoction of two or three hundred of these may well be supposed capable of depriving small animals of life.

The Accaways have not that open and determined

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deportment which characterises the Caribisce; but they are, undoubtedly, superior in courage to all the other nations; and their great numbers, and constant communication with the interior, renders them the most valuable of all the Indians within the colonial boundaries. Their numbers can be increased at will, by holding out proper inducements; but at this day they are dissatisfied and discontented, and of course daily decreasing. The Accawai and Atoriis bury their dead in a sitting posture in a pot made of clay with a cover; and yet they say that the soul of man dies with the body.

The *Caribisce* occupy the upper part of the rivers Essequibo and Cayuni, being at the extremest verge of the colony, where they retreated on the first settlement of the Dutch in the lower Essequibo. They are the most brave, credulous, simple, obstinate, and open in their resentments, of all the Indian nations. Their opinion, once formed, is never modified by circumstances, and that kind of prudence denominated policy is unknown to them. They are in consequence rapidly decreasing; and though, about twenty years ago, they could muster nearly a thousand fighting men, at this moment Mr. Hillhouse thinks it would be difficult to collect fifty in the whole country below the falls.

Those who remain have retired so far into the interior, that their services are entirely lost to us; but they still preserve a strong attachment to the colony, and a very slight manifestation of kindness would soon induce them to return.

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The Caribisce differ materially from the Accaways, in that they never go to war for the purpose of traffic, or procuring slaves. Their disputes are either on account of personal affronts, or infringement of territory, and their wars are always wars of extermination. On the Portuguese frontiers they used sometimes to make prisoners and sell them; but with us never, the purchase being prohibited. It was a Caribisce captain who, on the refusal of a late Governor to accept of a fine slave, immediately dashed out the brains of the slave, and declared, for the future, his nation should never give quarter[1].

The Caribisce have some slight tradition of their having once occupied the Caribbean Islands. This is undoubtedly true, as the names of many rivers, points, islands, &c. both in Trinidad and the Leeward Islands, are decidedly Caribisce. It may not be improbable that the difference in the character of the Caribisce and the Accawai of the present day, may originate in the former occupation of the islands by the one, and of the continent by the other—their language being nearly identical, and the Caribisce only distinguished by that independent boldness that characterises all islanders, when compared with the inhabitants of neighbouring continents.

[1] Mr. Hillhouse thinks that, to prevent this cruelty, the Governor ought to be empowered to purchase the slave, and attach him to some public Indian establishment until his labour remunerated the cost of his ransom. Though this system would save some bloodshed, Mr. H. will find, on reflection,

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The houses[1] of the Caribisce are constructed of two rows of elastic rods, about twenty feet long, stuck firmly in the ground, and bent over at top into the shape of a pointed arch; the base is about twenty feet, and the whole is covered by the leaves of the palm, laid horizontally from bottom to top. The houses of the Accawai are built either square, like those of the Arrawaaks, or conical, like a bell tent: these are called weemuh, and are very close and warm, being also thatched from the ground to the top, and no aperture for the smoke to escape by, but through the door-way. These weemuh are also used by the Macusi, and several inland tribes. The Caribisce are very indiscriminate in the use of animal food. Nothing comes amiss to them. Tigers, cats, rats, frogs, toads, lizards, and insects, are equally welcome with fish and game. If they shew any predilection, it is in favour of fish. This they catch by stopping creeks at high water, and infusing the haiarry, or the gonami in the shallows, the intoxicating qualities of which cause the fish to rise and float insensible on the surface[2].

They also shoot them with arrows, as they seek their food in the banks of the river; and this method

that it would cause more wars than before, as has indeed been the case throughout the greater part of Africa.

[1] The Caribs alone prefer open land for their habitations, the other nations dwell chiefly in the covered retreats of the forests. Though warlike, they are fond of cultivating land, and disposed to traffic.

[2] Vide Vegetable Kingdom for a description of the plan of poisoning the waters, and intoxicating the fish with the haiarry.

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is peculiar during the rainy season, as then all kinds of seeds and fruits fall in the water from the trees on the margin, and the fish crowd to the sides to devour them.

In the dry season the fish leave the sides, and are only caught with hook and line in the deeps, except at the falls, where they are shot as they pass and repass.

The *Warows*, inhabiting the Pomeroon coast, from Morocco Creek to the Orinoque, are a nation of boat-builders. They are about seven hundred in number, and derive considerable emolument from the sale of their canoes and corials.

The mora furnishes excellent crooked timbers, of any dimensions, and the silvabally is, beyond all known woods, incomparable for planking ships' bottoms, being almost impervious to the worm, light, and easily worked.

The large canoes and corials made by the Warows have been known to carry one hundred men and a three-pounder. They are constructed on the best model for speed, elegance, and safety, without line or compass, and without the least knowledge of hydrostatics; they have neither joint nor seam, plug nor nail, and are an extraordinary specimen of untaught natural skill. These craft are almost exclusively monopolized by the Spaniards, who, according to the above-named authority, do not scruple to take them by force, wherever they find them, at their own price, though made within the British boundary. They fit them out as launches, and in this state they are admirably adapted for privateering, and even

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piracy. This practice ought, certainly, to be prevented, as it is both our interest and duty to protect the property of the Warows within our territory, and the craft itself is highly useful for colonial purposes.

The Warows frequently hire themselves as sailors in the colony craft; and, in the Orinoque, they compose the majority of the crews of the feluccas and launches. They speedily acquire a practical knowledge of navigation; and, being expert fishermen, soon become good sailors, and consequently are ill adapted for land service.

My informant says they are drunken, quarrelsome, and insubordinate, and have little taste for agriculture—their food being principally fish, of which they will devour, at a meal, sufficient for three moderate Europeans; and they will ally themselves indiscriminately to whites, negroes, or mulattos.

Like their European sea brethren, they would become rich from their trade in corials, but that they soon dissipate the gains of their industry. One month they will be seen gaily dressed, and elevated with good living, and the next they will be starving, and working harder than any slaves, in the formation of craft, for a fresh supply. This improvidence, however inconvenient to themselves, is nevertheless capable of being turned to good account by an intelligent Government, and becomes an unceasing spur to their industry.

The climate being peculiarly sultry on their strictly wooded coast, is also particularly infested with musquitoes. To remedy these inconveniences, they smear

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themselves profusely with the oil of the carapa, and this renders their skins so dark that, but for their hair, they might be mistaken frequently for yellow-skinned negroes.

The eta tree (mauritia) is the grand succedaneum of, and is almost adored by, the Warows (as the cocoa nut is by the Maldive fishermen in the Indian Ocean). The fruit tastes like cheese, and is eaten with the pith, manufactured into a kind of cake of the consistency of sago. The young leaf is woven into hammocks, ropes, and baskets. The old leaf thatches the house. The trunk, split up, incloses it, and makes the floor. The pith of the large arm of the leaf, split longitudinally, makes a sail for the corial, and, by raising the fibres of the arm, and placing a bridge under, they make a rude kind of viol, to the music of which they dance.

They barbacot and salt great quantities of the querryman (*genus mugil*), with which they traffic on the coast, and sometimes as far as town. Amongst all the tribes of Indians, the virtues of the pyro-ligneous acid has been acknowledged from time immemorial. There being many kinds of meat that will not imbibe salt with sufficient rapidity in this climate to prevent speedy putrefaction, they prepare a stage, under which they make a clear wood fire, and laying fish, flesh, or fowl upon the stage, twelve hours' smoking will preserve it for several weeks. This is called 'barbacoting.'

The Warows, though deficient in the requisite qualifications for service by land, are yet equally valuable with the other nations, as they occupy a

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tract of land otherwise uninhabitable, and thus form a barrier to the emigration of fugitives westward. In their present neglected state, their point of peculiar excellence is overlooked, and of no advantage to us; but there is no doubt that, at some future day, we shall find it necessary to husband them with our other neglected resources: and the benefit to be derived from so doing is manifest.

THE MACOUSI.—These Indians are little known. Dr. Hancock, whose extensive knowledge of Guiana is highly appreciated, says, he found the Macousi a very numerous tribe, inoffensive and hospitable, and more industrious and provident than their neighbours, and the only tribe, excepting the Accawai and distant Torumas, independent of the Caribs, whose warlike spirit and rapacity have almost annihilated the other tribes. Dr. H. says, that they are continually subject to civil broils, by reason of the strange custom of selling their own people, and even relations, as slaves. When a Macousi dies, his wife and children are at the disposal of the elder surviving brother, who may sell or kill them at his pleasure. Mr. Hillhouse says, they are timid, taciturn, obedient, and tolerably industrious; but deficient in stature and personal strength, being of a yellower cast than the Accawai, whom otherwise they somewhat resemble. Having little courage, they resort to artifice in self-defence, and they have the general characters of poisoners and assassins.

PARAMUNI — ATTARAYA — ATTAMACKA.—These three nations, with several others, reside far in the interior, and are little known. They may be called

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mountaineers, and have all the propensities peculiar to highlanders, being always at war, or engaged in predatory expeditions.

All the information we possess concerning them is derived from the Accawai, who sometimes purchase their slaves; but they are described by them to be warlike and ferocious, and determined against the admission of any white person into their country. However true this may be, it is certain that no European has ventured yet beyond their boundary; and even the accounts given of them by the fathers of the missions, are equally founded on report alone. It is remarkable, that even these Indians, who are, undoubtedly, the most likely to incur the charge, have never been suspected or accused by the other nations of cannibalism; and Mr. Hillhouse asserts that, in all his transactions with the different tribes, he has never met with any trace or fact to justify such a supposition. It is true the Caribisce make flutes of the thigh-bones of their enemies; but they abhor the idea of either eating their flesh or drinking their blood, and this abhorrence is general.

There are six protectors of Indians in British Guiana, under whom are six postholders and assistants, on the different rivers. The postholders receive each 158*l.* a-year, and a house; their assistants each 72*l.* per annum. The protector's duty is to overlook the postholders in the performance of their duties, to endeavour to make peace between the Indian tribes when at war, and to transmit quarterly returns to the Lieutenant-Governor. They receive no salary, and are generally merchants and planters

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along the coast. The postholders are instructed to keep their posts or stations in good order—to attach the Indians to their posts—to prevent, as far as in them lies, quarrelling or fighting between the tribes —to obtain passes, signed by the Lieutenant-Governor, or Protector of Indians, from all persons passing the station, and to give in quarterly returns of all occurrences at their posts. It is to be feared that the lowness of the salary, and the want of vigilant superintendence by the chief authorities, have caused this otherwise excellent plan to be of little utility in practice.

I trust that these statements will have some effect in inducing attention to the state of the native aboriginal population in British Guiana[1].

LANGUAGE.—The principal language in British Guiana is, of course, English; but the Dutch colonists still keep up, as much as possible, a knowledge of their mother tongue, which is the more necessary, as many of their hereditary rights and deeds of property are in that language. The negroes speak (as is the case in all our *ci-devant* slave colonies) a mixed jargon of English and African words, according to the part of the coast from whence they emanate. Of the language of the Arrawaaks, Accawai, Caribisce, &c. little seems to be known; and the dialects of the Indian nations east of the Andes appear not to have been known even by the profound

[1] According to the testimony of Mr. Hillhouse, who has resided in the West Indies for many years, the following is the scale of life or occupation of the year, from the line to the 20°

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Humboldt. An extraordinary dissimilarity is observable between the languages and dialects of the

of north latitude. I give it as the production of an analytical mind, without vouching for its infallibility.

	Days of Labour.	Days of Idleness.	Days of Sickness.	Days of Drinking.	Days of Pleasure.	INFERENCES, REMARKS, AND DESTINATION.
English....	200	50	50	30	35	He generally keeps the Sabbath, and retires to Bath or Cheltenham, a wealthy and superannuated invalid.
Scotch.....	265	...	50	50	...	Drinking his whiskey-punch at night, and living otherwise poorly, to shine hereafter in Auld Reekie.
Irish	200	...	50	50	65	Werk-en-Rust*.
French	200	...	40	10	115	He buys a title and estate in Flanders, or dies from drinking sour claret.
Dutch.....	225	20	20	100	...	He drinks drams from sun-rise to breakfast systematically, and modifies the miasma without detriment to his business or constitution.
German ...	275	...	20	50	20	A Lordship on the Rhine.
Spaniard ..	100	100	20	10	135	Attached to the soil, from whence he never removes.
Mulatto ...	100	100	50	65	50	A premature death from drunkenness or its consequences, united to the evils of constant poverty & want.
Mestize ...	100	125	25	50	65	
Indian	90	150	50	50	25	
Free Negro	50	150	20	50	95	Dies at an advanced age from want.
Negro Slave	250	80	25	10	50	After 10 or 15 years of invalided ease, he dies of old age, having never known want.

* The Burial Ground.

If the European attains independence, his constitution is so much shattered that he is unable to enjoy it. The life of

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natives of Mexico and Peru, and those of British Guiana and the whole east coast of the South American continent—as much so, indeed, as between the Indians of Canada and the other northern states, when compared with those of the southward. The Indians of Guiana do not appear to have any hieroglyphical characters to express their ideas, nor, though possessing a rude knowledge of astronomy, any symbolic almanac, as their brethren on the west of the Andes have. Owing to the great variety of animated nature and of the vegetable kingdom, the language of the Indians is extremely copious. Mr. Hillhouse, to whom I am indebted for the following vocabulary of the four principal nations in British Guiana, says, that the Arrawaak has at least some claim to harmony and expression. The Lord's Prayer in the Arrawaak language is thus given by Mr. Hillhouse :—Kururumanny—haamary caleery oboraady—bachooty deweet boossa—baynse parocan bayin so pareeka—yahaboo ororoo adiako—meheracheh beyn dacotooniah—Ebehey nebehedow wakayany odomay—Mayera toonebah dayensey—Boboro talidey.—*Hedouainey*.

Whether the whole of the languages spoken on the east side of the Andes be not merely dialects of the principal language (Caribsce), is worth consideration. Mr. Hillhouse thinks that the

the Creole Spaniard appears the pleasantest, and that of the negro slave of the best moral and political tendency.

The intemperance of the European is frequent, but not excessive or of long duration ; but of the others, though seldom indulged in, it is more prolonged and desperate.

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Caribisce, Arrawaak, and Warow, all materially differ in their composition, and never run into each other; while the similarity between the tongues of the Caribs and Accaways is accounted for by the former calling the latter a brother nation, as the English would do the Americans. With the view of stimulating further inquiry I give the annexed—

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Vocabulary of Eighty-two Nouns and Numerals in the Four Indian Languages of British Guiana.

Note.—Where the Accaway and the Caribisce are exactly the same, one is omitted. The vowels have mostly the broad accent.

ENGLISH.	ARRAWAAK.	ACCAWAI.	CARIBISCE.	WARROW.
Man	Wadeely	Weenow		Neebooroo.
Woman	Hearoo	Eboocetey	Woorey	Teeda.
Boy	Elunchy	Weeuofutoonoh	Meh	Noboto.
Girl	Headaaza	Yemooricoh	Yemooroh	Annebacka.
Old Man	Habettoo	Tompoco		Edamoo.
Old Woman	Daaca Tay	Wabotorey	Peepeh	Natweet.
Brother	Dalookeytchey	Sayowa	Seewoh	Daheyey:
Sister	Dayoodaata	Yeynootey	Wahwah	Daakooey.
Uncle	Dadayinchy	Yaaooh	Yaawoh	Daatoo.
Aunt	Daarey	Waapoh		Daakatey.
Cousin	Daooenchy	Baatomoh		Hesenga.
Grandfather	Dadookootchy	Taamoh	Taamcoh	Nobo.
Grandmother	Daacootuh	Peepeh		Naatu.
Grandchild	Daalekenchy	Eupaarey		Naatoosenga.
Head	Daaseye	Eupopo	Eubooboh	Maquaw.
Neck	Daanooroo	Yewasacorooey	Yenasally	Mahaabey.
Eyes	Daacousy	Yenooreo		Maamu.
Nose	Daseery	Yenataryy		Mayhecaddy.
Mouth	Daleeroko	Eubotarry	Endarry	Maroho.
Hair	Dabarra	Eyunsettey	Eusettey	Maaheo.
Ears	Dadeehy	Paanarrey		Mahohoko.
Arms	Daadenaina	Yaboorey		Mahaara.
Hands	Daacabboo	Yeynarroo	Yenarry	Maamuhoo.
Fingers		Yeynaroo-seeteireh	Yenarry eteedeh	Mamuhoo.
Bones	Daaboonah	Yehpoh		Moohu.
Skin	Daada	Eupeehpoh		Mahoro.
Flesh	Daseeroquaw	Paacah	Eubonoh	Matoomuh.
Back	Dahaborooh	Yaabooh	Enganarry	Maahuh.
Belly	Daadeybayou	Youemboo	Euenboh	Moboonuh.
Breast	Dalouasebou	Epopooruh	Epoboroh	Maameyhoo.
Thighs	Dabookeesa	Eupatooh	Eupeeteh	Marolo.
Legs	Dadaanah	Eusairuh	Euseedeh	Maahah.
Feet	Daacooty	Eubobooruh	Pobooroh	Moomoo.
Blood	Cooreesa	Mooenooroh		Hotuh.
Fire	Ikhe-kee	Waatuh		Ikkoonuh.
Wind / Air	Awadooley	Pepeytoh		Ahaaka.
Water	Winiab	Toonah		Hoo.
Earth	Ororoo	Eetoh		Hotah.
Sky	Ooraroo / Casaako	Caaboh		Nahaamootuh

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ENGLISH.	ARRAWAAK.	ACCAWAI.	CARIBISCE.	WARROW.
Bow	Semaara-haaba ...	Ooreybah ...		Ataboroo.
Arrow	Semaara	Poolewah ...		Ataboo.
Bow string ...	S. h. Teemy ...	Labarey omooteh } ...	Ooreyb h amooteh }	A. Ahootuh.
Hammock ...	Daacorah	Eubaatey ...		Hah.
House	Baacheh	Yeowteh ...		Hanooko.
Corial	Coriaal	Cooriaala ...		Wayeybacka.
Paddle	Nahaaley	Abagoeta ...		Haaheh.
Buck-pot ...	Dawadda	Toomayeng ...	Toomaany	Hahluh.
Knife	Eadawalla	Mareea ...		Daabo.
Hook	Bodeyhey	Kehweey ...	Kuhweh...	Osceebokay.
Calabash ...	Eweedah	Quahey ...		Matalu.
Club	Moossy	Eubodooroh ...	Pooduh ...	Dooseh.
Beads	Coraara	Casooroh ...		Naascey.
Cloth	Caremarry	Tehooroh ...	Cameesa...	Heakaarah.
Sugar	Secaruco	Asekara ...		Sècaramutuh.
Salt	Pamoo	Waaeyu ...		Bam.
Pepper	Haatchey	Pooeymuy ...	Poomeh ...	Hooka.
Gun	Aracaboosa ...	Arakoobsa ...		
Powder... ...	Culbara	Culbara ...		Henehbwah.
Shot	Bala	Peeroto ...	Beerotoh	A. Amu.
Tobacco ...	Yeury	Taamooy ...	Taamuh...	Aoha.
Sun	Hadalley	Weeyeyu ...		Yah.
Moon	Kaatchey	Noonoh ...		Waanehuh.
Stars	Weewah	Eeremah ...	Seereguh	Koorah.
Rain	Wunney	Konobo ...		Naahaa.
Wind	Awadooley... ...	Pepeytoh ...	Beybeytuh	Ahaaka.
Thunder ...	Acoollia cally ...	Gonomaru ...		Nahaa.
Lightning ...	Beylebeleero ...	Cabeyta ...		Abeylebeyleh.
Hills	Ororoo-Ayumuntuh	Wooeybooey ...	Wooboh ...	Hotaquay.
Woods	Konoko	Eetoh		Daunah.
Rocks	Seeba	Toeboh ...		Hoeyu.
Sand	Murtooko	Sacow		Kahemrah.
Islands... ...	Kai-eery	Paah-oh ...	Paahuh ...	Bulohoh.
One	Abaaru	Tegeenah ...		Hesacha.
Two	Beama	Asagreh ...		Monamu.
Three	Cabooin	Osorwoh ...		Deeanamu.
Four	Bee-y-beech ...	Asagreyney ...		Munebee-nahatakanuh
Five	Aba-dacabbo ...	Tegeneh seh ...		Mahabass.
Six	Aba temainy ...	Meah daroy ...		Mohomatuna-hesecka.
Seven	Beama temainy ...	Yacombeh ...		Mohomatuna manam.
Eight	Cabooin temain ...	Tosorwa-nobeh ...		Mohomatuna-deeanamu.
Nine	Beeybeech temain	Yacombeh-nelly ...		Mohomatuna-nahatakanuh
Ten	Beama dacabbo ...	Yuma-cawuch ...		Mooreycooyt.

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RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS.—Throughout the West India Colonies considerable efforts have been made by the local governments and legislatures, for several years back, to promote religion and education, and by none more so than Guiana. In Demerara and Essequibo (independent of Berbice), there are attached to the Established Church of England seven rectors and one curate; to the Church of Holland, two ministers; to the Church of Scotland, five ministers; and to the Roman Catholic Church, two priests; twelve catechists, or schoolmasters, one being attached to each parish church of the English and Scotch persuasion; besides four schools in George Town for free boys and girls, and slave boys and girls, to which there are two masters and two mistresses. The annual sum paid to the clergymen [1], catechists, schoolmasters and mistresses, from the colonial fund, amounts to 135,450 guilders, equal to about 10,000*l.* In addition to this sum, there have been expended, between the years 1824 and 1831, upwards of 350,000 guilders, equal to about 26,000*l.*, on the building of churches and parsonages; independently of which, large sums have voluntarily been contributed by individuals for that purpose. On the estimate for the year 1832, a sum of 200,725 guilders, equal to 14,337*l.*, was placed for the support of the establishment for that year alone.

[1] The fixed salaries, independent of contingents and the rectors, are 6000 guilders, or 500*l.* sterling a year. The Roman Catholic clergyman is placed on the same footing as the clergy of the Established Church, or those of the Dutch or Scotch persuasion.

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Let it be remembered that these expenses are borne solely by the inhabitants, by taxes levied on them by the Court of Policy, combined with the financial representatives of the community. In Berbice there were, in 1831, three places of worship capable of holding 1000 persons; and the usual congregation is 800. There are two public or free schools, with 155 male and 147 female scholars.

The press has made as much progress as could be expected in a community where the cultivation of the land and proportion of its products forms the chief object of men's attention.

There are two well-conducted newspapers, a very good almanac, the printing of which would not be discreditable to a London typographer; and several local works printed in Demerara show that the mighty engine of civilization, by which I trust its blessings will be extended and perpetuated, is making progress on the continent of South America.

Among the English colonists the Episcopalian is the principal creed, and each parish has its rector, under the diocese of Barbadoes; the Dutch have their Lutheran church and minister, the Romish their chapel and minister, all paid (as I before said) and supported by the colony; and there are several active and useful missionaries endeavouring to instil Christianity into the negro population. Of the creed of the Indians we know little. Mr. Hillhouse says, that they acknowledge the existence of a superior Divinity, the universal Creator; and most tribes also believe in a subservient power, whose particular province is the protection of their nation. Amongst

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the Arawaaks, Aluberi is the Supreme Being, and Kururumanny the god or patron of the Arawaak nation.

Woorecaddo and Emehsewaddo are the wives of Kururumanny; one signifying a worker in darkness, and the other the couchy, or large red ant, that burrows in the earth: together, they are typical of the creation of all things out of the earth in the dark.

The great and just Creator is believed to be incapable of wantonly afflicting the works of his hands; and, as his power and unearthly nature place him above the requisition of services from mortals, they conceive that prayers or adoration are superfluous—his will being independent of the wants or caprices of mankind. They laugh at the idea of the supreme power being propitiated by the supplications of individual interest, because they say he is supremely just, and that if he hears the prayers of one, he is bound to hear all; and, as the interests of one individual are always interfering with the interests of others, so, to prevent unjust precedence, he will be influenced by no supplications, but execute his own will, without deigning to consult that of mortals.

The Caribisce and Accawai call their god Maconaima, also signifying one that works in the dark. Their idea of the creation is, that coeval with Maconaima was a large tree, and that, having mounted this tree, with a stone axe he cut pieces of wood, which, by throwing into the river, became animated beings. The details of this tradition are

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nearly as absurd and obscene as the mythology of the Hindus—they are, however, sufficiently indicative of the acknowledgment of a Supreme Being. Mr. Hillhouse thinks the Indians have, undoubtedly, a religious principle amongst them; but, as they have no priesthood, and no form of worship, it degenerates, as with all ignorant minds, into superstition and a belief in magic. I learn from Dr. Hancock that the Accaways are in perpetual fear of evil spirits, whom they consider night murderers, that continually lie in wait to entrap and destroy them; the Accaways are in fact real vassals to a fancied dæmonocracy.

The Indians of the Spanish missions of the Orinoque, who are of the same nation as ours, believed, that the object of the fathers in confessing, was to obtain a knowledge of their pecuniary means, in order to lay them under more effectual contribution. As to absolution, they thought the idea of a delegation of such a power to mortals, was too absurd to be worthy even of dispute; but they readily, from their belief in magic, subscribed to the virtues of the rosary, beads, amulets, and relics. Matins, vespers, and houris, were considered as incantations, and efficacious in expelling the evil spirit; and to this hour, the Spanish Indians of the Orinoque, who all wear the cross, and denominate themselves 'good Catholics,' chaunting their services morning and evening, have no other idea of a religious principle, than that the performance of these ceremonies gives them a charmed existence.

It is true these Indians are more sober and industrious than any of ours; but this arises from

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the circumstance of their having been long congregated in towns and villages, and subjected to the municipal guardianship of the local authorities. The Spanish missions evidently began at the wrong end; but, even under this great disadvantage, the Indians slowly improved under their care, from the example of their regularity and discipline, and an exemplification of the superior comforts of a state of society.

The evil spirit is believed to be the author of all the miseries that afflict humanity: every idea of terror is attached to this power of darkness; and the pe-i-man, who claims the qualification of an exorcist, is regarded with the greatest consequent reverence and respect. The ascendancy exercised by the pe-i-man, can only be compared to that of the Pope, or of a Catholic priest. All attempts, therefore, at conversion, must be utterly futile, except the pe-i-man himself be made an interested party.

In the present circumstances, the pe-i-man derives all his power and authority from the conviction of his supernatural agency; and he moreover derives all his subsistence from the contributions levied on the credulity of the ignorant. This is so truly monkish, that the bad success of the latter need no longer be wondered at—'Two of a trade never agree.'

To convert the Indians, the pe-i-man must first be made sensible that his change of creed will more amply fill his own pockets. To individuals only alive to self-interest (and these form a vast majority in all

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communities) that religion is always the best which is most in favour of pecuniary emolument. At present, a puncheon of rum, and a few beads, or clothes, would convert more Indians than all the holy water that was ever consecrated.

It would be therefore highly imprudent, in the present unprepared state of the Indians, to make religious instruction the first object. There is little doubt that a missionary, more zealous than prudent, would, at this moment, soon receive at their hands the crown of martyrdom; and one such occurrence would retard their conversion for ages. The slower, yet more certain, medium of association and example, is infinitely preferable.

Pageantry, show, and ceremony, have little influence, except as employed for magical purposes; nor will they respect a priesthood that is not endowed with the most palpable mental superiority.

In these remarks, I perfectly agree with Mr. Hillhouse. The Moravian missionaries would be the most efficient converts of the Indians of Guiana: these truly pious Christians have fourteen Missionaries and a station [founded in 1738] at Paramaribo, Surinam.

Gaols, &c.—In Demerara and Essequibo, the number of persons confined for debt, in 1831, was three; for misdemeanors, sixty-five males and thirty-five females; for felonies, three males and one female. There is but one prison, and it is capable of containing two hundred and seventy-three prisoners. In Berbice, there is one prison, suited for

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fifty prisoners; and, in 1831, there were therein twelve males, for misdemeanors, and one female for ditto; four males for felonies, and no debtors.

CHAPTER VI.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT—COURTS OF LAW, &c.—MILITARY DEFENCE—FINANCES—MONETARY SYSTEM, &c.—VALUE OF PROPERTY, &c.

THE form of Government in British Guiana is peculiar. At the capture of Demerara and Essequibo in 1803, the *Court of Policy* consisted of eight members —four official, appointed by the Sovereign, and four from amongst the inhabitants, by the College of Kiezers. Official members—the Governor, the Commander of Essequibo, the Fiscal of Demerara, the Fiscal of Essequibo; two members returned from the district of Demerara, and two from the district of Essequibo. Each district had a College of Kiezers, consisting of seven members.

The *College of Kiezers* for each district was elected by the inhabitants. They held the situation for life, or during their residence in the colony; qualification, twenty-five slaves, and three years' residence in the colony; qualification of electors, the possession of twenty-five slaves. Vote by ballot. Votes sent into the Governor's Secretary's office, and deposited in a sealed box, and opened in the presence of the Governor and not less than two other members of the Court of Policy.

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The College of Kiezers nominated two persons to fill vacancies in the Court of Policy. The Governor and the Court selected one from the nomination, and notified in the *Gazette* the person selected. The senior member of the Court went out after the meeting of the Combined Court, which assembled annually for levying the taxes.

FINANCIAL REPRESENTATIVES.—The College of Financial Representatives, nominated by the inhabitants, the same as Kiezers, and consisted of six; three returned by the district of Demerara, and three by the district of Essequibo. Term of service, two years; qualification, same as Kiezers; duties, to sit with the Court of Policy annually, for the purpose of levying taxes and regulating the expenditure, which was then called the Combined Court—'the Court of Policy combined with the Financial Representatives.' At this combined meeting the Court of Policy submitted an estimate of the expenses for the year, which had previously been prepared and discussed in that Court. In the Combined Court every item of the estimate was discussed, and every member, whether of the Court of Policy or Financial Representatives, had an equal vote. At this meeting the public accounts of the preceding year were examined and audited, which was the peculiar province of the Financial Representatives.

The Court of Policy passed all laws for the internal regulation of the Colony. It required four members to constitute a Court. No law binding without the concurrence of one member of the representative section of the Court. Qualification for a member of

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the Court of Policy, the owner of a plantation, and three years' residence.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.—Each district had a Court of civil and criminal justice, which consisted of six Members and a President. The Members (Colonial) elected by the Kiezers in the same manner as the Court of Policy; the two senior members retiring every year; qualification, possession of twenty-five slaves, and three years' residence in the colony. The Commander was President of the Court of Justice of Essequibo; the Governor President of the Court of Justice of Demerara; the law of Demerara was the law of Holland, or Roman law. Each member of the Court an equal vote on both law and fact: all cases decided by a majority of votes.

In 1812 the Courts of Justice of Essequibo and Demerara were united by proclamation of the Acting-Governor, Major-General Carmichael; and the Court of Justice of Demerara became the Court of both districts, and consisted of eight Colonial Members and a President, the President appointed by the Crown.

The Colleges of Kiezers and Financial Representatives existing in 1812 were dissolved by General Carmichael's proclamation, and a College of Kiezers and Financial Representatives was established, in which the functions of both colleges were united. This College consisted of seven members; term of service, two years; and elected by the inhabitants of both districts, paying tax on an income of 10,000f. per annum, or possessing twenty-five slaves,—all the Courts having been united.

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In July, 1831, the ancient Court of Justice was abolished, and a new Court constituted by Order in Council, by which Berbice was united with Demerara and Essequibo; and the Court of Policy formed of ten members, five official and five colonial; the Governor, in case of an equality of votes, having a casting vote as formerly.

The Colleges of Kiezers and Financial Representatives were separated in 1831. The Members of the College of Kiezers are now for life, and consist of seven Members; the Financial Representatives of six Members; term of service, two years: one College each of Kiezers and Financial Representatives for the Colony of British Guiana, being Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice; and the qualification, possession of twenty-five slaves, as previous to 1812.

The Court of Civil and Criminal Justice in British Guiana, and the Court of Civil Justice and the Court of Criminal Justice of Berbice, together with several Courts of Criminal Trial, and of first instance of civil jurisdiction in the island of Trinidad, and also the Royal Court of St. Lucia, by an Order in Council, 23rd April, 1831, are directed to be holden by and before three Judges; that is to say, before the President of the Court of Civil and Criminal Justice in Guiana, the Chief Judge of Trinidad, and the first President of the Royal Court of St. Lucia; the three Judges repairing, from time to time, to the said respective Colonies; two sessions in the year, at the least, to be holden in each settlement. In criminal cases three assessors, qualified by certain regulations, and open to challenge as jurors, are associated with

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the judges, and punishment can only be inflicted by sentence of the majority delivered in open Court. In each of the above-mentioned Colonies, Courts of inferior jurisdiction in civil and criminal causes are established, subject to the appeal and revision of the superior Court of Assize.

MILITARY DEFENCE.—Each male freeman between the ages of sixteen and fifty is compelled to enrol himself in the militia, which is liable to be called out at the pleasure of the Governor, for service, not extending beyond the preservation of internal tranquillity. The strength of the militia may be reckoned at 5000 men. The senior officers in the country are justices of the peace, and exercise a jurisdiction over certain districts, each of which is distinguished by different coloured banners. They are termed burgher officers, and their duties in general consist in promulgating proclamations, taking depositions upon tax schedules, carrying into effect public and local laws, and putting down any disturbances which may arise within their jurisdiction.

FINANCE—REVENUE.—The items of taxation in *Demerara and Essequibo* are principally as follow :— *Tax on produce* yielding about 220,000 *florins*[1]; *on income*, 46,000*f.*; *on horses and carriages*, 30,000*f.*; *tonnage and beacon duty*, 30,000*f.*; *wine and spirit duties, and tax on transient traders*, 65,000*f.*; *poll*

[1] A florin or guilder is equivalent to 15 stivers—each one penny English.

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capitation tax on slaves[1], 28,000*f.*; *grog shop licences*, 10,000*f.*; *gain on bills of exchange*, 20,000*f.*

[1] On the 17th June, 1835, the capitation tax was abolished, and in its stead was substituted a description of income tax, commencing from a revenue of 1500 guilders to 2000, on which is to be paid 33 guilders per annum, and so on, under an increasing graduated scale, to be levied on all persons deriving income or revenue from plantations, &c. in Demerara and Essequibo. A tax was also laid on malt liquor, perry, cider, flour, beef, dry cod fish, lumber, neat cattle, &c., and an *ad valorem* duty of one guilder upon slates, bricks, lime, and machinery, and upon all articles not specified of 2½ guilders per cent. On articles the produce of Essequibo and Demerara the duties are increased from one-sixth to one-fourth per cent. Masters and supercargoes of vessels from the United States and from British North America are exempted, as formerly, from the transient traders' tax, in consideration of the heavy duties they are already liable to pay.

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The Property Tax in Demerara and Essequibo for 1830 yielded thus[1]:—

VALUATION OF PRODUCE, AND				RATE OF TAXATION ON PRODUCE.			
Sugar	91,052,331 lbs.	at	2¼ s. f. 10,310,887	at 3¾ f.	per 100 lbs.	f.	154,663
Rum (proof 24) ..	2,411,240 gals.	—	14 1,687,938	— 21	— 100 gals.		25,319
Do. (do. 22) ..	20,573 do.	—	16 16,458	— 24	—		246
Do. (do. 21) ..	111,717 do.	—	18 101,625	— 27	—		1,524
Do. (do. 20) ..	360,430 do.	—	19 342,408	— 28⅛	—		5,136
Do. (do. 19) ..	423,248 do.	—	20 423,248	— 30	—		6,348
Do. (do. 18) ..	61,230 do.	—	22 67,353	— 33	—		1,010
Molasses	2,288,737 do.	—	8 915 494	— 12	—		13,732
Coffee	4,555,789 lbs.	—	5 1,138,947	— 7½	100 lbs.		17,084
Cotton	1,217,269 do.	—	6½ 395,812	— 9¾	—		5,934
Plantains sold ..	in value	—	.. 526,424	— 1½ per cent. on	526,424 9		7,896
Cattle do. ..	do.	—	.. 64,844	— do.	64,844 0		972
Amount of Income returned for Taxation			3,500,000	Producing, at 1½ per cent.			292,368
		Total ..	f. 19,491,438		Total ..	f.	532,232

The Custom duties in 1832 yielded 3668*l.*

[1] For fuller details, see the larger Edition of this Work.

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Among the fixed salaries (that is, those which are not altered from year to year,) are, the Lieutenant-Governor, 35,000*g.*[1] (sterling, 2500*l.*); the President of the Court of Justice, 21,000*g.* (1500*l.*); first Fiscal, 25,000*g.*; second ditto, 15,000*g.* (the table money to the officers of the King's regiments and to the Governor has been recently reduced); six Post-holders have 13,200*g.* (each 2200;) and four Assistants to ditto, 2792*g.* The Ministers of St. Paul's, St. Swithin's, St. John's, St. Luke's, St. Mary's, St. Mark's, St. Peter's, St. James's, St. Matthew's, and Trinity Parishes, have each 6000*g.*; the Minister of St. George's, 5000*g.*; the Roman Catholic Clergyman in George Town, 9450*g.*; the Adjutant-General of Militia, 6000*g.*; the Colony Housekeeper, 6000*g.*; the Colonial Agent in London, 5600*g.*; the Protector of Slaves, 7000*g.*; the Accountant in the Financial Department, 7200*g.*, &c. The Berbice Revenue and Expenditure I find thus stated in a Colonial Office manuscript:—

Years.	Gross Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
1821	17,132	17,820	1213	19,033
1822	19,635	14,199	805	15,004
1823	16,168	12,765	844	13,609
1824	12,439	11,841	1246	13,087
1826	12,373	13,806	696	14,502
1827	15,820	15,882	4761	20,643
1828	13,997	12,951	1174	14,125
1829	22,184	15,705	1265	16,970
1831	11,611	14,616	1430	16,046

[1] The other half of the Governor's salary is paid from what

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MONETARY SYSTEM.—The monies of account in British Guiana are—guilders, stivers, and pennings; sixteen pennings one stiver, twenty stivers one guilder.

English.	Guilder.	*Dutch* Stivers.	Pennings.
Half-a-crown	= 1	15	0
One shilling	0	14	0
Sixpence	0	7	0
One penny	0	1	4
Half-penny	0	0	10
Farthing	0	0	5

Pass at these rates by virtue of a proclamation of the Governor.

The par of Exchange is 12*f.* per £ sterling; but for many years it has been at 14*f.* per £, except for the year 1832, and part of 1831 and 1833, when it ranged as high as 16. 10*f.* per £; it is now at 14*f.* per £, and which is the rate that the Governor's salary is paid, and all other officers of the Crown who have a fixed sterling salary.

The Colonial silver coinage consists of three-guilder pieces, two-guilder ditto, and one-guilder ditto, and ten-stiver and five-stiver pieces. The amount of silver coin in circulation in 1832 was 31,454 pieces of three-guilders = 94,362*l.*; of two-guilders, 31,057 = 62,114*l.*; of one ditto, 65,573; of half-guilder pieces, 97,676 = 48,838*l.*; of quarter ditto, 165,852 = 41,463*l.*; and sundry pieces, 183.

is termed the King's chest, the funds of which arise from licences for wood-cutting, lands granted, capitation tax on slaves, &c.

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Total, in Holland currency—guilders, 312,497 = 22,321*l.* sterling, exclusive of a considerable quantity of Spanish dollars. There are also six tons of copper in stiver and half-stiver pieces, costing 1079*l.* sterling.

The paper currency is secured on funded property and Colonial security, and amounts to 2,199,758 guilders = 157,126*l.* sterling. The money invested in the three per cent. Consols and Bank Stock nearly covers the paper money of Demerara and Essequibo in circulation. Notes of twenty joes are equal to 440 guilders, and proportioned down to one joe, which is equal to twenty-two guilders. Of these notes of one joe there are 13,258; of two joes, 8,189; of three joes, 4201; of five joes, 3150; of ten joes, 1700; of twenty joes, 1250.

In Berbice the quantity of silver coin in circulation is not ascertainable. The amount of paper money in 1832 was—florins, 426,699, issued on the security of the revenue of the Colony. The denomination of paper money in circulation is guilders or florins and stivers; and its comparative value with the coins in circulation is—2*s.* 6*d.* = 1*f.* 15.0; 1*s.* = 14.0; 6*d.* = 7.0; 1*d.* = 1.4.

Value of Property Annually Created, and Moveable and Immoveable, in British Guiana, calculated in sterling money, and excluding slaves[1]:—

Property Annually Created—Sugar, 1,000,000 cwts.

[1] The value of property expended in purchasing slaves has actually amounted in the aggregate, at 120*l.* each, to 9,960,000*l.*

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at 20*s*. 1,000,000*l*.; Rum, 4,800,000 gallons at 1*s*. 6*d*. 360,000*l*.; Molasses, 3,000,000 gallons at 10*d*. 125,000*l*.; Coffee, 4,000,000 lbs. at 7*d*. 116,666*l*.; Cotton, 3,000,000 lbs. at 7*d*. 87,500*l*.; Plantains, value at 4*l*. per annum all round, 400,000*l*.; Animal Food and Fish, at 5*l*. per annum all round, 500,000*l*.; Vegetable Food, at 1*l*. per annum all round, 100,000*l*.; Merchandise made, 500,000*l*.; Income and Sundries, 600,000*l*.—Total, 3,789,166*l*.

Property Moveable and Immoveable — Productive Land: Cultivated and granted, 2,000,000 acres at 7*l*. 14,000,000*l*.; Uncultivated, 32,000,000 [1] acres at 2*s*. 6*d*. 4,000,000*l*.; Public Property—Wharfs, Forts, Barracks, Churches, Gaols, Roads [2], Canals [3], &c. 1,000,000*l*.; Private Property—Dwelling Houses, &c.: Clothes, Plate, Furniture, &c. 1,500,000*l*.; Stores: Wharfs, Boats, Rafts, Merchandise, Canals, Roads, &c. 3,000,000*l*.; Live Stock: Cattle, Horses, Swine, &c. 500,000*l*.; Coin in Circulation, Gold and Silver, 20,000*l*.—Total, 24,020,000*l*.

[1] I estimate the productive uncultivated land in British Guiana at 50,000 square miles; thus excluding nearly one half the territory as barren, a circumstance which is over estimated, in order not to exaggerate the value of property.

[2] Full 250 miles of *public* roads, averaging 600*l*. a mile.

[3] Some idea may be formed of the labour employed in drainage, and the capital required to establish it, when it is stated that thirty miles of *private* canals, twelve feet wide by five deep, and 200 miles of drains, two feet wide by eighteen inches deep, are required for the drainage and transportation of the canes to the mill of an estate producing 700 hogsheads of sugar.

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CHAPTER VII.

STAPLE PRODUCTS OF BRITISH DEMERARA, ESSEQUIBO, AND BERBICE—COMMERCE—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, SHIPPING, &c.—GENERAL VALUE OF THE COLONY.

SUGAR, rum, coffee, and cotton, form the principal articles of growth and export. The following return, given on oath, shows the production of Demerara and Essequibo for three periods of three years each:—

In the first period (1823, 1824, and 1825), 213,478,633 lbs. (112 lbs. Dutch = 112 lbs. 4 oz. avoirdupois) sugar; 17,779,473 lbs. coffee; 6,808,913 lbs. cotton. In the second (1826, 1827, and 1828), 239,556,975 lbs. (Dutch) sugar; 13,897,083 lbs. coffee; 7,389,373 lbs. cotton. In the third (1829, 1830, and 1831), 262,709,559 lbs. (Dutch) sugar; 7,059,431 lbs. coffee; 2,252,557 lbs. cotton.

It will be seen, from the foregoing, that while coffee and cotton cultivation has diminished, sugar has increased.

The following is a consecutive return of the

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PRODUCE OF DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO.

	DEMERARA.					ESSEQUIBO.				
Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.
	Lbs.	Galls.	Galls.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Galls.	Galls.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1810	9,222,659	471,365	...	19,248,210	5,821,776	13,349,590	600,340	...	2,269,926	1,293,632
1812	12,351,979	815,131	...	6,167,289	4,322,453	16,317,354	843,035	...	687,134	399,711
1813	13,597,072	847,081	...	2,951,555	2,408,265	16,758,414	843,286	...	614,149	267,585
1814	12,780,282	722,146	...	7,431,926	5,494,416	18,526,224	955,523	...	919,585	529,481
1815	18,657,091	965,012	...	8,270,432	3,844,690	21,865,329	1,026,806	...	1,586,843	560,298
1816	19,866,713	898,009	...	11,254,206	3,393,980	24,246,068	1,058,886	...	602,411	426,532
1817	22,787,125	946,106	522,988	5,370,418	3,846,889	30,462,555	1,169,161	547,151	935,454	536,048
1818	24,037,418	1,025,032	501,068	9,855,717	4,498,591	30,095,438	1,283,389	437,121	818,827	584,683
1819	33,009,248	1,445,465	526,252	3,033,310	2,485,483	33,781,912	1,356,558	485,499	440,990	228,502
1820	35,128,107	1,679,031	333,351	4,160,133	2,266,273	35,467,584	1,551,917	407,687	278,778	150,250
1821	30,855,407	1,433,574	306,572	9,898,297	2,482,127	31,279,222	1,284,238	315,200	709,359	322,499
1822	32,023,713	1,390,667	525,266	6,437,881	3,543,514	33,025,734	1,336,067	574,017	382,455	162,445
1823	36,962,174	1,265,035	1,123,667	5,986,435	2,065,957	37,859,359	1,152,981	1,117,376	391,588	178,161
1824	34,930,396	1,093,931	1,379,166	4,735,531	1,874,147	34,422,882	1,027,721	1,137,526	255,958	175,168
1825	31,631,781	1,053,393	1,311,014	6,059,099	2,297,041	37,672,041	1,014,755	1,459,596	350,862	218,439
1826	33,001,815	1,204,163	1,333,284	2,579,422	2,527,261	37,101,378	1,144,580	1,162,057	193,074	273,903
1827	42,025,893	1,337,267	1,495,326	5,121,773	2,558,767	42,431,339	1,309,191	1,524,898	255,723	111,406
1828	42,552,390	1,371,398	1,456,536	5,415,699	1,562,400	42,444,161	1,275,907	1,430,765	331,392	355,636
1829	46,357,180	1,810,005	1,113,148	4,450,123	1,127,471	45,295,151	1,579,734	1,175,589	105,666	89,798
1830	46,451,553	2,068,028	1,167,537	1,274,177	546,700	43,220,224	1,908,992	978,374	52,981	67,950
1831	46,504,202	2,030,190	1,607,510	1,449,292	379,068	34,831,249	1,514,608	1,289,036	27,192	41,270

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RETURN OF STOCK, &c. IN DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO, in 1832.

Parishes.	CROPS. Nature of the Crops, and Number of Acres in each Crop.								
	Acres of Canes.	Acres of Coffee.	Acres of Cotton.	Acres of Coffee and Plantains.	Acres of Plantains.	Acres of other Provisions.	Acres of Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Acres of Uncultivated Land.
St. Mary	415	...	800	...	244	62	12,345	1,521	12,345
St. Paul									
St. Matthew	90	7	...	...	93	140	780	330	...
St. Mark	1,967	...	...	...	107	...	542	2,674	3,410
St. Swithin / St. Luke	4,649	547	...	930	1,199	70	1,326	7,064	3,943
St. John	1,997	...	...	...	205	95	1,122	2,311	3,021
St. James									
St. Peter									
The Trinity	7,739	...	700	125	1,413	442	1,868	6,641	5,619

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RETURN OF STOCK, &c.—(*continued.*)

Parishes.	STOCK, Number of.				PRODUCE. Nature of the Produce, and the Quantity of each.					
	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Plantains.
					Hhds.	Punchs.	Hhds.	Cwts.	Bales.	Bunches.
St. Mary.....	13	6,960	596	90	424	...	350	...	140	1,200
St. Paul										
St. Matthew ...	3	420	76	77	...	60				
St. Mark.....	11	208	23							
St. Swithin } ...	12	274	329	...	5,353	1,948	3,688	2,027	...	237,090
St. Luke }										
St. John	24	351	332	110	1,959	606	1,085			
St. James										
St. Peter.....										£.
The Trinity ...	59	409	998	51	8,438	3,610	6,107	173	75	1,300 sterling value sold in plantains.

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The relative state of cultivation of staples in Demerara and Essequibo, in May, 1832, may be judged of by the following return of estates to government:—

PARISHES.	NUMBER OF ESTATES.						
	Sugar.	Sugar and Coffee.	Cotton.	Coffee.	Coffee and Cotton.	Timber.	Farms.
St. Mary	18	0	5	0	1	0	7
St. Paul	14	3	6	0	2	0	1
St. George and St. Andrew	4	1	0	4	0	0	0
St. Matthew	6	11	0	5	0	0	0
St. Mark	11	3	0	16	0	2	0
St. Swithin	2	9	0	2	0	0	0
St. Luke	13	6	0	3	0	2	2
St. Peter	28	0	0	0	0	1	0
St. James	20	0	0	0	0	1	0
St. John	18	2	0	1	0	2	0
Trinity	20	1	1	2	1	1	0
Total Number	152	36	12	33	4	9	10

Return of produce made in the district of Demerara and Essequibo, in 1832:—

Pounds Weight of Sugar, 80,209,226: Gallons of Rum—Proof 18, 165,251; Proof 19, 436,039; Proof 20, 112,980; Proof 21, 12,951; Proof 22, 8,670; Proof 23, 2,443; Proof 24, 1,498,330: Gallons of Molasses, 4,017,151: Pounds of Coffee, 3,417,911: Pounds of Cotton, 599,510. Amount of Cattle and Plantains sold, 628,605 guilders.

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RETURN OF THE PRODUCE, STOCK, &c. IN BERBICE, 1832.

County or District.	STOCK.		PRODUCE.				
	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.
			Lbs.	Galls.	Galls.	Lbs.	Lbs.
West Coast	23	6,586	2,746,442	111,126	65,514	16,758	333,763
East Coast	23	3,645	2,616,626	71,053	49,932	218	224,436
West Bank, Berbice River	24	249	847,781	22,862	24,000	1,117,091	
East Bank, Berbice River	21	834	3,155,990	91,377	159,087	1,514,978	
West Bank, Canje Creek	61	259	1,310,016	39,000	51,997	404,922	
East Bank, Canje Creek	10	258	4,436,142	179,326	123,764	9,657	
Courantyn River	2	269	1,059,736	69,186	11,028		
Total...	...	...	16,172,733	583,930	485,322	3,063,624	558,199

PRICE OF PRODUCE.

Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.
Per Lb.	Per Gall.	Per Gall.	Per Lb.	Per Lb.
2½ to 3 Stivers.	8 to 12 Stivers.	7½ to 12 Stivers.	8 to 12 Stivers.	7½ to 9 Stivers.

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EXPORTS FROM DEMERARA, &c. FROM 1803 TO 1825.

Years.	Number of Vessels.	Sugar.			Rum.			Cotton.	Coffee.	Molasses.		
		Hhds.	Tierc.	Brls.	Puns.	Hhds.	Brls.	Bales.	Dutch Lbs.	Hhds.	Tierc.	Brls.
1803	394	19,638	213	161	4,887	—	—	46,435	9,954,610	311	—	—
1804*	71	2,161	71	19	504	—	—	6,318	439,520	311	—	—
1805	200	15,839	212	129	3,611	17	—	21,202	2,295,701	1,637	—	—
1806	221	19,337	474	804	4,722	17	—	23,604	12,390,102	1,694	—	—
1807	198	16,857	138	643	5,813	7	—	26,314	4,399,141	4,255	6	—
1808	202	18,383	168	578	6,474	11	—	18,361	9,204,718	2,544	72	171
1809	191	17,065	210	286	6,412	7	—	13,588	2,463,163	1,521	19	9
1810	211	15,731	27	402	4,967	7	—	28,850	7,652,342	1,597	26	120
1811	269	18,374	21	243	9,363	30	—	20,916	13,233,534	3,856	156	308
1812	274	22,276	53	186	10,086	63	—	25,069	8,279,725	2,513	144	259
1813	227	20,585	163	637	12,117	120	—	16,426	10,485,158	777	—	23
1814	245	22,170	187	314	10,980	107	—	1,447	6,250,412	780	—	2
1815	294	31,550	326	642	14,181	127	—	30,315	10,204,902	2,327	41	11
1816	336	29,418	510	587	11,038	135	—	15,361	12,271,476	3,843	2	16
1817	309	36,682	72	474	15,062	70	—	17,235	14,908,943	9,567	16	33
1818	443	37,387	157	797	14,587	161	—	19,137	8,244,085	8,968	24	71
1819	434	45,936	479	1,124	15,761	446	—	9,718	8,944,009	9,450	—	13
1820	423	49,953	720	1,224	23,609	581	—	9,193	4,518,523	7,567	—	—
1821	426	39,780	783	785	16,162	881	—	9,006	5,702,919	5,191	—	11
1822	391	45,177	1,008	1,671	19,672	1,841	—	14,905	10,264,297	10,200	14	61
1823	368	51,360	449	2,470	15,781	2,568	—	9,587	8,084,729	19,634	230	269
1824	395	47,393	371	1,631	13,531	1,966	739	8,275	7,761,355	24,528	282	256
1825	374	47,635	481	1,603	12,305	2,220	1,233	12,683	3,500,983	23,824	746	311

* From 10th September, 1804, to 5th January, 1805.

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SHIPPING, DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO, in 1832.

Places.	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain ...	165	47,701		191	52,956	
British Colonies	345	29,576		349	24,970	
United States ...	20	2,906		17	2,449	
Foreign States	41	3,983		10	2,313	
Total ...	571	84,166	5,003	567	82,688	4,673

The imports into Berbice, in 1831, were, in value, 161,177*l.*; of which 110,400*l.* was from Great Britain. The quantity and value of various articles of merchandize exported from Berbice, during the year 1832, was

Description of Goods.		Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.
			£.
Arrow Root.....	lbs.	300	16
Cocoa, Colonial	—	100	3
Coffee, Colonial	—	2,344,330	86,443
Cotton Wool, Colonial	—	435,300	10,708
Fruit.....	Value		11
Hides	Number	345	84
Molasses	Gallons	384,452	19,025
Spirits, Rum	—	343,837	19,996
— Shrub.....	—	99	18
Sugar	lbs.	15,747,300	196,285
Wine of all sorts	Gallons	900	240
Wood of all sorts	Value		15
Miscellaneous Articles.....	—		89
	Total.....		332,933

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The shipping of Berbice, in 1832, was

Places.	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain ...	31	8,472		32	8,762	
British Colonies	273	15,978		303	17,113	
United States...	3	442		2	243	
Foreign States	11	898		1	206	
Total ...	318	25,790	1,725	338	26,324	1,785

WEIGHTS.—Principally steelyards, from 1 to 3,500 lbs.; 110 lbs. Dutch = 100 lbs. English, or 10 per cent. difference. Of measures, 1 Dutch ell of 26 inches Rhyaland is equal to 27 inches.

COMMERCE.—Of the trade of the *entire* colony of British Guiana, I have no complete return; that for Demerara and Essequibo I give according to the latest year in my possession.

TRADE OF DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO, for 1830.

IMPORTS.—From the United Kingdom, official value, 542,107*l.*; West India Colonies, 21,628*l.*; North American Colonies, 125,168*l.*; United States of America, 541*l.*; Foreign States, 45,084*l.*: Total imports, 734,528*l.* In 1832, the imports amounted to 486,380*l.*

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QUANTITY and VALUE of various ARTICLES of MERCHANDISE exported from DEMERARA during the Year 1832.

Description of Goods.		Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.
			£.
Arrow Root.....	lbs.	1,912	68
Coffee, Colonial	—	1,330,655	65,292
Copper, Old.....	—	56,154	1,404
Cotton Wool, Colonial	—	697,000	22,069
—— Foreign	—	161,100	5,121
Fruit.....	Value		200
Hides	Number	2,417	1,111
Molasses	Gallons	8,597,025	125,458
Spirits, Rum	—	1,934,580	95,808
Succades	Value		5
Sugar	lbs.	85,433,600	1,066,234
Wine of all sorts	Gallons	1,960	1,130
Wood, viz. Spars	Number	1,135	400
— of other sorts.....	Value		100
Miscellaneous Articles.....	—		1,704
	Total.....		1,386,104

GENERAL VIEW AND FUTURE PROSPECTS. — The importance of our possessions in South America may be gathered from the foregoing detail. The social condition of the mass of the population is now in too great a state of transition from slavery to freedom, to admit of much speculation as to the future; and I conclude with observing, that British Guiana offers a wide and fruitful arena for the industry of the emigrant, the enterprise of the merchant, and the science of the geologist and natural philosopher. Millions of acres of fertile land, now lying waste, are adapted to the cultivation of every tropical product of which the mother country stands in need. Cotton, tobacco, opium, silk, pepper, rice, indigo, timber, drugs, dyes, and spices, may be raised and exported,

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to an incalculable extent, with benefit to all who engage in these pursuits. There is wanting to develop the resources of so fine a country, the granting of a more domestic government to the colonists, the disposal of the crown lands, at a nominal quit rent, to intending emigrants, the reduction of the duties in England on articles of colonial growth and manufacture, or the permission being given to the colonists to trade with any European nation they choose, on their own terms. Surrounded, as British Guiana is, by the continental possessions of France, Spain, Holland, Portugal, &c., it behoves the British nation to view with interest, and even anxiety, the progress of our colonial power on one of the most eligible spots of the American hemisphere.

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BOOK II.

BARBADOES.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—EARLY SETTLEMENT—HISTORY, &c.

THIS most ancient of the British colonies is situated at the south-eastern extremity of the great American archipelago, in latitude 13° 5′ north, longitude 59° 41′ west; extending about twenty-two miles in length, and fourteen in breadth, with a surface of 106,470 acres.

For general reference, I give the Course and Distance from Bridge Town, Barbadoes, to St. Pierre, Martinique; and thence to the principal Ports in the *Northern* direction, down to St. Thomas; with the Distance added to each Course, for turning in and out of the Ports.

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Principal Ports.	Course.	Distance. Miles.
Bridge Town to St. Pierre	N. W.	134
St. Pierre to Roseau, Dominica	N. by W. ½ W.	36
Roseau to Basseterre, Guadaloupe	N. ½ W.	46
Basseterre to Montserrat	N. W. by N.	56
West Point of Montserrat, to St. John's, Antigua	N. E.	33
St. John's to Charlestown, Nevis	W. ½ S.	47
Charlestown to Basseterre, St. Kitts	N. N. W. ½ W.	11
Basseterre to St. Eustatius	N. W.	23
St. Eustatius to Gustavia, St. Bartholomew	N. N. E.	25
Gustavia to St. Martin's	N. W. by W. ½ W.	15
St. Martin's to West End of Anguilla	N. by W.	14
Anguilla to S. W. Point of Virgin Gorda	W. by N.	70
Virgin Gorda to Tortola	W. ½ S.	10
Tortola to St. John's	S. W. by S.	7½
Tortola to Port	W. ½ N.	8½
St. John's to St. Thomas, general course	W. by N.	16
Whole Distance		549
Distance in smooth water, under the lee of the islands, in the above given directions		180

Course and Distance from Bridgetown, Barbadoes, to Carenage, St. Lucia; and thence to all the principal Ports in the *Southern* direction to Port of Spain, Trinidad; with the Distance added to each Course, for turning in and out of Ports.

Principal Ports.	Course.	Distance. Miles.
Bridge Town to Carenage, St. Lucia	N. W. ½ W.	107
Carenage to Kingstown, St. Vincent	S. by W. S. W.	50
Kingstown to St. George's, Grenada	S. S. W. ½ W.	78
St. George's to Scarborough, Tobago	S. E. ½ E.	97
Scarborough to the Bocas, Trinidad	W. S. W.	83
The Bocas to Port of Spain		20
Whole Distance		415
Distance under the lee of the islands, in the above given directions, the winds northerly		115
Ditto, winds being southerly		195

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It may be necessary to premise that Barbadoes is the most *windward* of all the Caribbean islands, because it holds the most *easterly* position; while the Havannah is the most *leeward*, because it is in the most *westerly* situation. This division originated in the circumstance of the wind blowing for nearly nine months of the year from the *eastern* quarter. The Caribbean islands are therefore denominated *windward* according to their *easterly*, and *leeward* according to their *westerly*, position.

GENERAL HISTORY.—The early discovery of Barbadoes is involved in obscurity; the island remained unknown and unnoticed for a century after the discoveries of Columbus, and the first indication of its existence in the charts of European navigators, was A.D. 1600. It is said to have been first visited by the Portuguese, who, finding it uninhabited, and rude in appearance, named the isle *Los Barbados*, or, as some say, in reference to the number of fig trees, which from their spreading branches were likened to luxurious beards. The original discoverers left some swine and plants on the isle, and abandoned it. In 1605, an English ship, the *Olive*, returning from Guinea, accidentally touched at Barbadoes, landed a part of her crew at the spot, where the *Hole Town* was afterwards built, erected a cross, took possession of the island, and inscribed on several trees, 'James, King of England, and of this island.' Finding no refreshments the crew was reimbarked, and the adventurers proceeded to St. Christopher's, where an English colony had recently been formed. The island was then neglected for nearly twenty years,

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when some Dutch men-of-war having visited it, reported favourably of its adaptation for cultivation. These particulars having reached Sir Wm. Courteen, an enterprising London merchant, he endeavoured to effect a settlement on Barbadoes. The beauty and fertility of the island became also much talked of in England, in consequence of a ship of Sir Wm. Courteen's having put in there, in stress of weather; and the mariners, on returning home, expatiated on the advantages of the place. The spirit of colonization was at this time exceedingly active in England—I wish sincerely it could now be revived—and the Earl of Marlborough (afterwards Lord High Treasurer) obtained from James I. a patent for the island, to him and his heirs for ever. Sir Wm. Courteen, having obtained the sanction of the noble patentee, fitted out two large ships with men, arms, ammunition, and every thing suited to the establishment of a new colony. One vessel only arrived at Barbadoes; and a town was commenced in February, 1625, at the spot where the *Olive* had touched twenty years before, and named *James's* (by some called *Hole*) Town. In 1627, James Hay, Earl of Carlisle, stimulated by the representations of Thomas Warner, who had been engaged in forming a settlement at St. Christopher's, applied to and obtained from Charles I. (who had then newly ascended the throne) a grant of all the Caribbee islands, to be formed into a palatinate or proprietary government, under the name of Cariola. The Earl of Marlborough, of course, strenuously opposed this enormous grant, as affecting his prior right to Barbadoes; and litigation com-

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menced between the two noblemen, which was compromised on Lord Carlisle agreeing to settle on the Earl of Marlborough, and his heirs for ever, an annuity of 300*l.* in lieu of his claim. The Earl of Carlisle's patent passed the great seal the 2d of June, 1627, and the preamble of this singular charter runs as follows:—

'Whereas our well-beloved cousin and counsellor, James Lord Hay, Baron of Sauley, Viscount Doncaster, and Earl of Carlisle, endeavouring, with a laudable and pious design of propagating the Christian religion, and also of the enlargement of the territories of our dominions, hath humbly petitioned us for a certain region of islands in our dominions afternamed, lying towards the north part of the world, as yet void, and inhabited by savages, who have no knowledge of the Divine Power, commonly called the Caribbee islands, containing the islands of St. Christopher, Grenada, Saint Vincent, Saint Lucia, Barbadoes, Martinique, Dominica, Marigalante, Deseada, Todasantos, Guadaloupe, Antigua, Montserrat, Redondo, Barbuda, Nevis, Eustatia, St. Bartholomew, St. Martin, Anguilla, Sombrera, and Anegada, and many other islands, found at his great cost and charges, and now brought to that pass to be inhabited by a large and copious colony of English, with certain privileges and jurisdictions belonging to the said government and state of a colony and region to him, his heirs, and assigns, to be granted.'

By the succeeding clauses, his Majesty did, by the same grant, for him, his heirs, and successors, make, create, and constitute the said Earl of Carlisle, his heirs and assigns, absolute proprietor and lord of the said region; reserving still the allegiance due to his Majesty, his heirs and successors. It was then added, 'And because we have made and appointed the said James Earl of Carlisle true lord of all the aforesaid province, as he to whom the right belongeth, know ye, that we have authorized and appointed the said James Earl of Carlisle, and his heirs, of whose fidelity, prudence, justice, and wisdom,

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we have great confidence, for the good and happy government of the said province, or the private utility of every man, to make, erect, and set forth; and under his or their signets to publish such laws as he the said Earl of Carlisle, or his heirs, *with the consent, assent, and approbation, of the free inhabitants of the said province, or the greater part of them thereunto to be called,* and in such form, and when and as often as he or they, in his or their discretion, shall think fit and best. And these laws must all men, for the time being, that do live within the limits of the said province observe; whether they be bound to sea, or from thence returning to England, or any other of our dominions, or any other place appointed, upon such impositions, penalties, imprisonments, or restraint; and if it behoveth, and the quality of the offence requireth, either upon the body or death itself, to be executed by the said James Earl of Carlisle, and his heirs, or by his or their deputy, judges, magistrates, officers, and ministers, according to the tenor and true meaning of these presents, in what case soever; and with such power as to him the said James Earl of Carlisle, or his heirs, shall deem best. And to dispose of all offences or riots whatsoever, either by sea or land, whether before judgment received, or after remitted, freed, pardoned, or forgiven. And to do and perform all and every thing or things, which, to the fulfilling of justice, courts, or manner of proceeding in their tribunals may or doth belong or appertain, although express mention of them in these presents be not made: yet we have granted full power, by virtue of these presents, them to be made; which laws so absolutely proclaimed, and by strength of right supported, as they are granted, we will enjoin, charge, and command, all and every subject and liege people of us, our heirs, and successors, as far as them they do concern, inviolably to keep and observe under the pains therein expressed; so as, notwithstanding, *the aforesaid laws be agreeable, and not repugnant unto reason; nor against, but as convenient and agreeable as may be to the laws, statutes, customs, and rights of our kingdom of England.*

'And because in the government of so great a province oftentimes sudden occasions do fall out, to which it shall be needful to apply a remedy before the free inhabitants of the

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said province can be called; and for that it shall not always be needful, in such cases, that all the people be called together; we will and ordain, and by these presents, for us, our heirs, and successors, have granted to the said James Earl of Carlisle, and his heirs, that he by himself or his magistrates and officers, in that case lawfully preferred, may make decrees and ordinances, both fit and profitable, from time to time, that they may be esteemed, kept, and observed, within the said province, as well for keeping the peace as for the better government of the people there living, so that they may be publicly known to all whom they do concern. Which ordinances we will, within the said provinces, inviolably to be kept, upon pain in them expressed; so that these laws be agreeable to reason, and not repugnant nor against it, but, as far as may be, agreeable to the laws and statutes of our kingdom of England; and so *that those laws extend not to the hurt or discommodity of any person or persons, either to the binding, constraining, burthening, or taking away either their liberty, goods, or chattels.*

'We also of our princely grace, for us, our heirs, and successors, will straightly charge, make, and ordain, that the said province be of our allegiance; and that all and every subject and liege people of us, our heirs and successors, brought or to be brought, and their children, whether then born, or afterwards to be born, become natives and subjects of us, our heirs, and successors, *and be as free as they who were born in England;* and so their inheritance within our kingdom of England or other of our dominions, to seek, receive, take, hold, buy, and possess, and use and enjoy them as their own; and to give, sell, alien, and bequeath them at their pleasure; *and also freely, quietly, and peaceably, to have and possess all the liberties, franchises, and privileges of this kingdom, and them to enjoy as liege people of England,* whether born or to be born, without impediment, molestation, vexation, injury, or trouble of us, our heirs, and successors; any act or statute to the contrary notwithstanding.'

Charles soon contrived to forget that he had ever made this grant to Lord Carlisle; and in February 1628,

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being much pressed by the Earl of Pembroke, the unfortunate monarch made over Barbadoes to his Lord Chamberlain, the Earl of Pembroke, in trust for Sir Wm. Courteen, who, really for his zealous energy, deserved to have had the island bestowed on him in the first instance. Scarcely had this grant been made when the Earl of Carlisle returned from a foreign embassy, and to appease his Lordship's resentment at the breach of faith evinced towards him, the irresolute monarch revoked the charter or patent granted to the Earl of Pembroke, and restored the proprietary rights to his favourite Carlisle. The proceedings just mentioned had the good effect of stimulating the Earl to improve the territory bestowed on him: he contracted with a company of London merchants for a grant of 10,000 acres of land, on condition of receiving from each settler forty pounds of cotton annually, and the privilege of nominating a governor, or chief. Wolferstone, a native of Bermuda, was commissioned by the Earl of Carlisle as governor, with the power of Governor-Commander-in-Chief and Captain, to do justice, decide controversies, keep his Majesty's peace, and punish offenders, according to the laws of England, and the nature of their crimes. Sixty-four settlers (each entitled on landing to 100 acres of land) arrived in Carlisle Bay 25th July, 1628, commenced the erection of wooden houses, threw a bridge across the river which intersected the ground, and laid the foundation of Bridgetown, the present capital. The Earl of Pembroke's men, who were settled on the leeward of the island, refused to obey the windward, or Carlisle Bay settlers. Arms were

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altimately had recourse to, the windward men triumphed, and while the latter were asserting their right of jurisdiction in Barbadoes, the Earl of Carlisle had a new royal patent, made out in England, confirming in the most explicit and unequivocal manner the former grant. Sir William Tufton was appointed Governor-Commander-in-Chief in February, 1629. A military force was sent out to keep the leeward men quiet. A council of twelve settlers, appointed to assist the Governor in holding a Courts General Sessions of the Peace, laws were enacted suitable to an infant settlement, and the cultivated or occupied parts of the isle divided into six parishes, viz. Christ Church, St. Michael, St. James, St. Thomas, St. Peter, and St. Lucy.

It would be uninteresting to the general reader, and foreign to the object of my work, to enter into a detailed view of the early history of Barbadoes. As in all new colonies, the inhabitants met with no inconsiderable difficulties. Local feuds were added to domestic privations; but the civil war which raged in England contributed to people and enrich the island, as it had done other places, and, on the downfall of Charles, many respectable families attached to the royal cause found shelter and comfort in Barbadoes. The authority of the Earl of Carlisle in the West Indies may be said to have declined with the regal power at home, and the colony, left to its own government and resources, and under the auspices of commercial freedom, rapidly acquired independence and opulence.

In 1645 the island, under the prudent rule of Mr.

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Bell, was divided into four parishes (George's, Philip's, John's, and Andrew's, were added to the before mentioned), a church built in each, and an officiating minister appointed. A general assembly was instituted, composed of two deputies elected in each parish from the majority of freeholders. The island was divided into four circuits, in each of which a court of law was constituted—defensive fortifications erected around the isle—the militia constituted a formidable force of 10,000 infantry and 1000 cavalry—the total population of the island had increased to 150,000 persons, of all colours and sexes, and the value of property was quadrupled in seven years. This prosperity was not owing to sugar culture, for Ligon, who visited the island in 1647, says, that the plantation of the cane had only then recently begun; but it would appear that Barbadoes carried on an unrestricted foreign intercourse with Holland and other countries. The number of slaves in the island at this period is not on record, yet here, as elsewhere, the evils of the system were early felt, for in 1649 a formidable insurrrection took place at Barbadoes, and a general day was appointed for the massacre of all the white inhabitants. The plot was discovered by a negro, in gratitude to his master, the day before its contemplated execution, and twenty-eight of the leading negroes were gibbeted, according to the custom of the times.

In 1650 Lord Carlisle (the son of the first patentee,) hearing much of the wealth of the island, which he considered patrimonial property, and desirous of reaping some advantages from the same, executed a

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lease to Francis Lord Willoughby, of Parham, an active royalist officer, conveying to his Lordship all his right and title to the colony for twenty-one years, upon condition that the profits arising from the proprietary right should be mutually shared between them. Charles II. (then in exile,) desirous of securing the West Indies for his Crown, appointed Lord Willoughby Governor and Lieutenant-General of Barbadoes and of all the Caribbee islands; and the legislature of Barbadoes, on his Lordship's arrival, passed an act, acknowledging his Majesty's right to the sovereignty of the island, and that of the Earl of Carlisle, derived from his Majesty, and transferred to Lord Willoughby. Barbadoes, always distinguished for its loyalty, exerted itself on this occasion, and equipped several ships of war, which compelled the neighbouring islands to submit to the authority of the Crown, as emanating from the chief West India Government at Barbadoes. Cromwell, it may be supposed, did not quietly permit this refuge to his royal opponent; and a formidable squadron, under the command of Sir George Ayscue, containing a large body of troops, was despatched for the purpose of reducing the refractory colonists in obedience to the Commonwealth, and with the view of crippling the power of Holland, with which Barbadoes and the other West India possessions carried on a lucrative traffic. The far-famed navigation laws were passed, by which the ships of any foreign nation were prohibited from trading with any of the English plantations, without a licence from the Council of State.

The Barbadians for some time gallantly defended

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themselves against the tyranny of Cromwell, and it was not until the Parliamentary forces had laid waste a large portion of the island, the defection of Colonel Modiford, and after many had been slain on both sides, that the island was subdued by the Cromwellian power. Sir George Ayscue was appointed Governor after the reduction in 1652, and proceeded to subdue the other islands that had maintained their allegiance to the royal authority. On the restoration of Charles II., Lord Willoughby, who had been banished for life from the island, appointed Colonel Humphry Walround, a faithful old royalist (superseding Colonel Modiford, who proceeded to Jamaica) to be Deputy-Governor and President of the Council of Barbadoes. Charles also conferred the dignity of Knighthood on thirteen gentlemen of Barbadoes, in testimony of their attachment to the royal cause.

Lord Willoughby, in 1662, as lessee of the Earl of Carlisle, renewed his claims on the island. Lord Kinnaird, the kinsman and heir of the Earl of Carlisle, brought forward demands on the settlers amounting to 60,000*l.* and the heirs of the Earl of Marlborough, who were entitled to a perpetual annuity from the same quarter, claimed a large sum for arrears. To satisfy these claims, now urgently made, a large number of the Barbadians (by Mr. Kendal) agreed to lay a duty of 4½ per cent. on all native commodities, the growth and produce of Barbadoes, when exported from the island. This impost was estimated at 10,000*l.* a-year. Many Barbadians protested against the perpetual rent-charge of 10 per cent. on their plantations; but, after being submitted

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to the decision of the Privy Council, it was finally agreed, that the 4½ per cent. fund should be applied towards providing a sufficient compensation to the Earl of Kinnaird, for surrendering his right to the Carlisle charter—to provide for discharging the Earl of Marlborough's annuity—one moiety of the surplus to be paid to Lord Willoughby for the remainder of his lease, the other moiety to the creditors of Lord Carlisle, until the expiration of Lord Willoughby's contract, when, after a salary of 1200*l.* a-year for the future Governor of Barbadoes, the creditors of the Earl of Carlisle were to receive the entire balance until their demands were liquidated. Under these conditions (agreed to by all parties) the proprietary Government was dissolved, and the sovereignty of Barbadoes annexed to the British crown. Some of the inhabitants of Barbadoes long protested against the imposition of the 4½ per cent. duties, but the rigorous and prudent administration of Lord Willoughby brought internal peace to the island, while his Lordship extended the power of Britain in the western hemisphere[1]. Colonel Christopher Codrington became Deputy-Governor in 1668, and his administration was distinguished by vigilance and circumspection. In 1669 the windward and leeward isles were formed into distinct governments, Guadaloupe being the line of demarcation, and the commerce of the leeward isles was given to Sir W.

[1] Lord Willoughby was lost in a hurricane, near Guadaloupe, while employed in reducing several islands to subjection.

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Stapleton, while Lord Willoughby retained that of Barbadoes and the windward islands, which he kept until 1673.

To detail the local affairs of the island would occupy several volumes; I must therefore pass rapidly to a conclusion. In 1722, on the appointment of Governor Worsley, a salary of 6000*l.* sterling per annum was fixed on his Excellency, and provided for by a capitation tax of 2*s.* 6*d.* on each slave, and by a tax on lawyers, patentees, and public officers, &c., a burthen which the colonists soon found themselves unable to defray. The administration of Lord Howe (commencing in 1733) seems to have been generally applauded; under his generous auspices a free press was established in Barbadoes, and he died at his government in 1735, beloved by all who knew him.

In 1780 Barbadoes was ravaged by a terrific hurricane, which lasted for forty-eight hours, and devastated the island. Such was the violence of the wind that a twelve-pound carronade was blown from the pier-head to the wharf, a distance of 140 yards. Of eleven churches and two chapels, only three were left standing; and not more than thirty houses of the extensive capital of Bridge-town; the Mole-head, which cost the colonists 20,000*l.* was destroyed, and the castle, battery, forts, town-hall, prison, and cells demolished. The loss of lives amounted to 3000, and of property to 1,018,928*l.*

Public sympathy was excited at home; Parliament granted a sum of money for the relief of the sufferers,

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and the citizens of Dublin munificently subscribed 20,000*l.*[1]

On the 24th of November, 1787, his Royal Highness Prince William Henry, (our present gracious Sovereign,) visited Barbadoes in command of the *Pegasus* frigate, and was received with the most ardent demonstrations of affection and loyalty. All ranks vied in their enthusiastic desire to receive the son of their beloved Sovereign with dutiful respect, and on his Royal Highness's departure from the colony, the House of Assembly voted the Prince a sword of the value of three hundred guineas.

The events which have since occurred do not require much detail—the Colonial Almanac affording complete chronological data. Hurricanes, earthquakes, slave insurrections, make up the principal features of the latter years' history of Barbadoes. Sufficient has been stated to give a correct view of our acquisition of the island, and its singular primary proprietary government. As historical data, the following list of the rulers of Barbadoes is appended :—

1625, W. Deane, Gr.; 1628, C. Wolferstone, do.; 1629, J. Powell, do.; 1629, R. Wheatly, do.; 1629, Sir W. Tufton, do.; 1630, H. Hawley, do.; 1633, R. Peers, D. Gr.; 1636, Hawley, D. Gr.; 1638, W. Hawley, D. Gr.; 1639, H. Hawley, Gr.; 1640, Sir H. Hunks, do.; 1641, P. Bell, do.; 1650, F. Lord Willoughby, do.; 1651, Sir G. Ayscue, do.; 1652, D. Searle, D. Gr.; 1660, T. Modiford, Gr.; 1660, H. Walrond Pr.; 1663, Francis Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1666, H. Willoughby, H. Hawley, Samuel Barwick, Joint Grs.; 1667,

[1] It should be recorded that the house of Latouche and Sons contributed the princely sum of 1000*l.* for the relief of the Barbadians.

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William Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1668, C. Codrington, D. Gr.; 1670, W. Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1670, C. Codrington, D. Gr.; 1672, W. Lord Willoughby, Gr.; 1673, Sir P. Colleton, Bt. D. Gr.; 1674, Sir J. Atkins, Gr.; 1680, Sir R. Dutton, do.; 1683, Sir J. Witham, D. Gr.; 1684, Sir R. Dutton, Gr.; 1685, E. Steed, D. Gr.; 1690, J. Kendall, Gr.; 1694, F. Russell, do.; 1696, F. Bond, Pr.; 1698, R. Grey, Gr.; 1702, J. Farmer, Pr.; 1703, Sir B. Granville, Gr.; 1706, W. Sharpe, Pr.; 1707, M. Crowe, Gr.; 1710, G. Lillington, Pr.; 1711, R. Lowther, Gr.; 1714, W. Sharpe, Pr.; 1715, R. Lowther, Gr.; 1720, J. Frere, Pr.; 1720, S. Cox, do.; 1722, H. Worsley, Gr.; 1731, S. Barwick, Pr.; 1733, J. Dotin, do.; 1733, Scroop Lord Viscount Howe, Gr.; 1735, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1739, Hon. R. Byng, Gr.; 1740, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1742, Sir T. Robinson, Gr.; 1747, Hon. Henry Grenville, do.; 1753, R. Weeks, Pr.; 1756, C. Pinfold, Gr.; 1766, S. Rous, Pr.; 1768, W. Spry, Gr.; 1772, S. Rous, Pr.; 1773, Hon. E. Hay, Gr.; 1779, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1780, J. Cunningham, Gr.; 1783, J. Dotin, Pr.; 1784, D. Parry, Gr.; 1790, H. Frere, Pr.; 1791, D. Parry, Gr.; 1793, W. Bishop, Pr.; 1794, G. P. Ricketts, Gr.; 1800, W. Bishop, Pr.; 1801, Francis Humberstone, Lord Seaforth, Gr.; 1803, J. Ince, Pr.; 1804, F. H. Lord Seaforth, Gr.; 1806, J. Spooner, Pr.; 1810, Sir G. Beckwith, K. B., Gr.; 1814, J. Spooner, Pr.; 1815, Sir J. Leith, K. B., Gr.; 1816, J. Spooner, Pr.; 1816, Sir J. Leith, Gr.; 1817, J. F. Alleyne, Pr.; 1817, Stapleton, Lord Combermere, G. C. B., Gr.; 1817, J. F. Alleyne, Pr.; 1817, S. Lord Combermere, Gr.; 1820, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1821, S. Hinds, do.; 1821, Sir H. Warde, K. C. B., Gr.; 1825, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1826, Sir H. Warde, Gr.; 1827, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1829, Sir J. Lyon, K. C. B., Gr.; 1829, J. B. Skeete, Pr.; 1829, Sir J. Lyon, Gr.; 1832, Sir Lionel Smith, K. C. B., do.; 1833, Sir Evan M'Gregor, do.; 1836,

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CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—CLIMATE, &c.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Barbadoes, although generally level, except in the north-east quarter, called Scotland (which is about 1100 feet above the sea), has a very beautiful appearance, owing to its extensive cultivation, and sloping fields or terraces. In some deep vallies there are the remains of the primitive forests which formerly covered the whole island. Bridge-town, the capital, extends along the shores of the beautiful Bay of Carlisle for nearly two miles in length, and half a mile broad, with about 20,000 houses. The handsome and spacious barracks of St. Ann's, with their fine parade, are at the southern extremity of the town. The square, with Nelson's statue, is well laid out, and many of the houses are handsome. The Government-house, called Pilgrim, is about half a mile from Bridge-town. The fort of St. Anne, though small, is capable of making a good defence; it contains several excellent magazines stored with ammunition, and an armoury, with many thousand stand of arms in perfect order. The base of the island is calcareous rock, formed of madrepores, and other marine concretions, and is probably of volcanic origin, like the greater number of the surrounding isles. The soil varies much; in some districts it is sandy and light, in others a rich black

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earth, and in several places spongy. Here and there is found a red clay of considerable depth; and the light whitish earth broken into a grey mould, or hardened into lumps, not only resembles chalk, but actually consists of indurated argillæ, bleached by exposure to the weather [1].

Climate, Vegetation, &c.—Owing to the flatness of the island, leaving it open to the sea-breeze, and its extensive cultivation, Barbadoes is peculiarly healthy; and the details given of the range of the thermometer, &c. under St. Vincent's, will, with some modifications, answer for Barbadoes: a similar remark will apply to vegetation. One peculiarity is deserving of notice; four distinct crops of sugar-cane, maize, tobacco, and sweet potatoes, may be seen in the same field, and in alternate drills.

Population.—The inhabitants of this colony rapidly increased from its first settlement, In 1674 their numbers were calculated at 50,000 whites, and 100,000 coloured or negroes, thus giving 500 mouths to every square mile, while China, with its 350,000,000, has not more than 288 to the square mile. In 1676 Barbadoes, on 100,000 acres, contained 70,000 whites and 80,000 blacks; total, 150,000 souls. This great population was effected by granting out land, in lots of ten acres each, to poor settlers, and white servants who had fulfilled the term of their indentures. Some, perhaps many of these lots, were subsequently sold when the island became too popu-

[1] For an account of the renovation of the soil by volcanic eruption, see St. Vincent's, p. 216.

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lous for the extension of sugar plantations; and the late occupiers, with the purchase money, proceeded to settle in other islands, where land was cheap and plentiful.

The population at different periods of the last century was, so far as we have returns—

Years.	Whites.	Blacks.
1724	18,295	—
1753	—	69,870
1786	16,167	62,953

The slave population from 1817 to 1832, was—

Years.	CENSUS.		Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumission.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1817	35,354	42,139	—	—	—	—	—
1820	36,733	41,612	3654	3758	3317	3286	250
1823	36,159	42,657	4178	4058	3487	3228	297
1826	36,995	43,556	4788	4814	3409	3304	322
1829	37,691	44,211	4748	4502	3494	3320	670
1832	37,762	43,738	—	—	—	—	1089

By the inter-colonial-appointment returns, the number of slaves is 82,807; average value, from 1822 to 1832, 47*l.*; relative value, 3,897,276*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.*, 1,721,345*l.*

The total population and the division into parishes is thus stated :—

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PARISHES.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Whites.	Free Coloured.	Slaves.	Total.
St. Michael . . .	15	4965	3045	17,990	26,000
St. Philip	23	1207	307	9,840	11,354
St. Lucy	13	900	75	5,345	6,320
St. George . . .	16	927	175	7,381	8,483
St. Andrew . . .	13	600	300	3,650	4,550
St. Joseph . . .	9½	890	90	4,251	5,231
St. John	12	908	172	5,487	6,567
St. Peter	13	—	1500	6,617	8,117
St. Thomas . . .	13	—	750	6,000	6,750
Christ Church . .	22½	1700	120	10,000	11,820
St. James . . .	12	700	50	4,300	5,050
Total . .	162	12,797	6584	80,861	100,242

Among the inhabitants of this island there is a numerous class between the great planters and the people of colour, termed Barbadians; a circumstance which forms a striking difference between Barbadoes and the other colonies. Many of them are descended from the original settlers, and have no precise knowledge when their ancestors first arrived. They accordingly regard this island as their nation and only abode, and do not, like the planters or the negroes, look back to the scenes of infancy as their better home.

POPULATION.—CENSUS OF 1829.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Births.	Deaths.
Whites	7049	7910	14,959	506	592
Free Coloured . .	1576	1543	3,119	226	147
Free Black . . .	1033	994	2,027	132	111
Total Free Persons	9658	10,447	20,105	864	850

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COMMERCE.—The trade of Barbadoes has fluctuated very much at various periods, owing to hurricanes and bad seasons, as well as to the equally injurious fiscal restrictions of man. Its early exports were—

Years.	Sugar.			Molasses.	Rum.			Ginger.	Aloes.		Cotton.
	Hds.	Trs.	Bar.	Hds	Hds.	Trs.	Bar.	Bags.	Hds.	Gds.	Bags.
1786	8,659	82	3419	114	5199	39	693	8070	1	409	8864
											Lbs.
1790	9,998	123	2935	0	2331	0	261	4565	0	475	1,287,088
1791	11,333	60	2346	30	3008	0	411	3735	0	770	1,163,157
1792	17,073	125	2698	188	5064	0	512	3046	0	515	974,178

The value in money of the trade of the island in 1830, was—

IMPORTS FROM			
Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Value.
£203,417	93,834	71,869	369,120
EXPORTS TO			
Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Value.
£624,734	136,842	15,118	776,694

Principal Articles of Export from Barbadoes, from 1822 to 1830, were—

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Years.	Aloes.	Sugar.		Rum.
		hds.	tierces.	
1822	576 packages.	12,822	—	4 punch.
1823	16,557 lbs.	—	—	236 cases
1824	32,327 ...	20,256	4081	3,747 gall.
1825	35,763 ...	22,590	3332	22,352 ...
1826	62,484 ...	20,220	2401	113 punch.
1827	95,966 ...	17,010	1813	12 ...
1828	—	26,789	2664	—
1829	—	22,545	1668	—
1830	738 packages.	25,111	1755	—
1831	—	26,096	2256	—
1832	—	18,757	1281	—

Quantity and Value of various Articles of Merchandize, exported from the colony of Barbadoes, during the year 1832 :—

Description of Goods.		Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.	
			£	£
Arrow Root	lbs.	16,814	—	469
Cocoa, Colonial	...	4,700	—	38
Coffee, Colonial	...	161,049	—	2,892
Copper, Old	...	73,615	—	2,846
Cotton Wool, Colonial	...	112,089	—	2,209
Dye and Hardwoods :—				
Logwood, Colonial	Tons	49	128	
... Foreign	...	4	10	
Total of Dye and Hardwoods		53		138
Fruit	Value	—	—	2
Ginger	lbs.	36,380	—	1,200
Hides	Number	1,526	—	133
Iron and Steel Manufactures, British	Value	—	—	319
Lime Juice	Gallons	12	—	1
Molasses	...	91,815	—	3,842
Spirits, Rum	...	3,954	—	329
... Shrub	...	11	—	2
Succades	...	—	—	177
Sugar	lbs.	24,108,348	—	262,491
Tobacco	...	1,350	—	13
Tortoiseshell	...	62	—	89
Wine of all sorts	Gallons	3,127	—	1,598
Wood	Value	—	—	77
Miscellaneous Articles	...	—	—	6,644
Total				285,516

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The value of the imports for the same year was 461,308*l.*

REVENUE.—The income is raised as in the other islands. The following was the Barbadoes gross Revenue and Expenditure, in £ sterling, from 1821 to 1830 :—

Years.	Revenue.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military [1].	Total.
1821	13,127	16,679	2592	19,271
1822	17,421	13,795	2697	16,492
1823	29,431	23,511	2499	26,010
1824	26,125	12,009	1654	13,663
1825	21,223	22,878	1747	24,625
1826	21,622	27,140	2500	29,640
1827	20,352	20,242	1723	21,965
1828	20,157	18,122	1677	19,799
1829	19,290	18,339	1604	19,943
1830	16,349	16,899	1666	18,565

SCHOOLS, EDUCATION, &c.—There is a church and chapel in each of the eleven parishes of the island, capable of containing 8000 persons in all. The expense of the clerical establishment is 4050*l.* per annum. Besides the central school for 160 white boys, founded by Lord Combermere, there are many others of more recent establishment for both sexes and for all colours. The central school is a large and convenient building, nearly opposite the King's

[1] By *Military Expenditure*, I wish it to be understood, throughout this work (unless otherwise expressed) the charges incurred by the colonists for British military forces or garrisons.

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house, and within two minutes' walk of the cathedral. Mr. Coleridge says, it is impossible to speak in too high terms of this excellent institution, which reflects upon Lord Combermere, who promoted, and the Legislature, which liberally seconded the undertaking, the utmost credit. At present, about 160 white children are educated here, precisely upon the plan of the national schools in England; all of them are fed during the day, and the major part are well clothed. The beneficial effects of this charity are already confessed on all hands; principles of sobriety and devotion are instilled into their minds, and habits of regularity and peaceful subordination are enforced. From this class of boys, the master tradesmen, mechanics, overseers, and even managers, are now supplied; and when it is considered how much the comfort of the slaves must depend upon these persons, their education will be found to be, as it really is, a direct measure of general amelioration. A girls' school has also been founded, under the auspices of the Bishop; they are both favourite institutions, and the chief people in the colony spare neither pains nor expence in strengthening or maintaining them. There is also a large school for coloured children, with coloured managers, established under the Bishop's superintendence; and several more have been opened by the Bishop, at the Government expence. Every colour is admitted, the only conditions being cleanliness and constant attendance. Instruction is gratuitous.

The situation of Codrington College, according to a recent visitor, is one of the most delightful that can

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possibly be conceived; surrounded by hills on every side, possessing the superior advantages of the sea-breeze, an unbounded view of the Atlantic, and refreshed by a clear stream of water, collected in front into a small lake. The students receive their board and education for 35*l*. per annum, and are examined and ordained by the Bishop if intended for the church. The seventeenth annual report published of the Barbadoes Society for the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church, states the number of boys receiving instruction at present in the school to be 135, fifty of whom are boarders. In the girls' school 106 children are receiving instruction, thirty-eight of whom are boarders. Its funds amounted last year to upwards of 3400*l*.

The Moravians have two missionary stations in the island; viz. at Sharon, founded in 1765, and at Tabor, in 1825. There are six Moravian clergymen.

The Wesleyans have three missionaries, three schools, twenty male and fifty female teachers, 236 boys (82 free), and 273 girls (67 free).

FORM OF GOVERNMENT.—The government of the island is constituted in a manner similar to that already described under Jamaica; namely, a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a Representative Assembly. The Governor's legislative authority is entirely negative; he can only recommend subjects for consideration to the Assembly, and his concurrence is required before any bill can become law such concurrence, however, not being valid beyond three years, unless sanctioned by the royal confirmation. In his executive capacity the Governor is en-

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titled to nominate, and of course remove, the officers of militia; the right, however, is seldom exercised beyond the choice of Colonels, who nominate their Lieutenant-Colonels, Majors, and Captains, who in turn appoint their subalterns. The *Governor*, with the consent of the Council, has power to dissolve the General Assembly, and to issue writs for a new election; with the concurrence of five members he may suspend any member of Council, unless it be an extraordinary occasion requiring secrecy, when his power is absolute, subject to explanation at home. If there be less than seven members of Council resident in the island, the Governor may fill up the number (to twelve) *pro tempore*, for the dispatch of business. As *Chancellor*, his Excellency has the custody of the great seal, and presides in the Courts of Error and Equity, in which Courts, the Judges being Council, he only sits *primus inter pares*, his vote or opinion being of no greater consequence than that of any other member. As *Ordinary* he takes probate of all testamentary writings; in case of litigation establishes or annuls the will; and in default of executors appointed by the testator, his Excellency issues letters of administration according to the rules of law. As *Vice-Admiral* he issues his warrant to the Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court to grant commissions to privateers, &c. The militia force is strong and well appointed; there are six regiments of several battalions each, together with a corps of life guards, and a numerous and brilliant staff. In 1666 Barbadoes had an effective military force of 20,000 infantry and 3000 cavalry, composed of the colonists.

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The Governor of Barbadoes has a controlling authority over the British windward islands and possessions, each of which has its Lieutenant-Governor.

WINDWARD AND LEEWARD ISLANDS.

Return of the Numbers and Distribution of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-commissioned Officers, and Rank and File of the British Army, including Colonial Corps, in each year since 1815; including Artillery and Engineers:—

Years.	OFFICERS PRESENT, OR ON DETACHED DUTY AT THE STATIONS.											Serjeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.
	Colonels.	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Pay-Masters.	Adjutants.	Quarter Masters.	Surgeons.	Assist.-Surgeons.			
25 Jan. 1816	2	13	18	87	220	73	11	14	14	14	26	750	319	14,076
1817	2	9	8	70	151	58	9	8	8	10	18	556	236	9,834
1818	1	4	4	46	110	32	4	5	7	7	12	338	148	5,587
1819	1	5	4	43	87	40	3	6	7	6	13	300	134	4,910
1820	—	3	8	31	57	44	4	5	7	6	7	221	126	4,490
1821	—	7	8	36	59	43	5	7	7	7	5	222	134	4,342
1822	—	7	8	31	45	37	6	7	6	7	5	176	121	3,810
1823	—	7	8	35	45	41	6	5	7	7	7	194	73	4,134
1824	—	7	10	48	60	41	7	9	9	9	8	231	95	4,877
1825	—	3	11	45	63	24	6	9	7	6	8	277	106	4,922
1826	1	4	11	58	62	30	7	7	8	8	13	328	110	4,286
1827	—	6	9	48	62	37	8	8	6	9	10	270	90	4,582
1828	—	7	10	49	65	29	5	7	7	7	11	272	90	4,485
1829	—	9	8	58	64	29	5	7	8	7	10	266	86	4,571
1830	—	7	8	58	59	38	8	9	6	7	10	281	89	4,906
1 Jan. 1831	—	6	9	44	58	29	9	6	8	6	9	274	87	4,620
1832	—	7	9	44	62	21	9	6	8	8	9	280	85	4,508
1833	—	9	7	43	58	35	8	5	8	7	9	274	83	4,303

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BOOK III.

ST. VINCENT'S.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY—AREA—HISTORY, &c.

LOCALITY.—This most beautiful of the Caribbee islands, about eighteen and a half miles long, and eleven broad, containing 84,286 acres, is situate 13° 10′ 15″ north latitude; 60° 37′ 57″ west longitude, nearly equidistant from Grenada and Barbadoes.

GENERAL HISTORY.—St. Vincent's, (thus called from the day of its discovery, being *St. Vincent's* day in the Spanish calendar), was descried by Columbus, during his third voyage, on the 22nd day of January, 1498, but it does not appear that he took any formal possession of it; the native inhabitants, the Caribs, being very numerou ..d warlike. In 1672, this island, with Bart ..s, St. Lucia, and Dominica, was included in one government by King Charles II., although no steps were taken to occupy St. Vincent, unless occasional visits, both by English and French, for the purpose of obtaining wood and water, may be deemed such. About 1675, a ship from Guinea, with a cargo of slaves, was wrecked either on this island or on Bequia, and a number of the negroes escaped into the woods; these intermingled with

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C.D. Stewart delin. Alfred Adlard sculp.

KINGSTOWN, SAINT VINCENT.

London, Published by Whittaker & Co. Ave-Maria Lane 1838.

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the natives, and hence originated the black Caribs. In 1719, the French sent over some settlers from Martinico, a few of whom succeeded in establishing themselves in the leeward part of the island. In 1723, George I. granted this island and St. Lucia to the Duke of Montague, who made a feeble attempt to take possession of it, but his expedition failed; and, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral, and the ancient proprietors left in unmolested possession. The French, however, continued in their settlements until 1762, when it was taken by General Monckton and Admiral Rodney; and in 1763, by the peace of Paris, the island was ceded in perpetuity to Great Britain, without *much* consideration for the native proprietors. The lands were directed to be sold to defray the expenses of the war, and 20,538 acres produced 162,584*l.* sterling. In 1772, a war with the Caribs commenced, which was terminated by a treaty in 1773, when certain lands were allotted them. In 1779 the island was taken by a small body of troops from Martinico, who were joined by the Caribs, which circumstance, coupled with unfortunate political differences, caused the surrender to be made without a struggle. The conquerors, however, made no alteration in the government, probably contemplating only a temporary possession. In 1780 the dreadful hurricane occurred, which destroyed the church and a great proportion of the buildings in the island, besides occasioning serious loss to the planters. St. Vincent was restored to Great Britain at the general peace in 1783; at which time it contained sixty-one sugar

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estates, besides other small plantations of cotton, coffee, and cocoa. In 1795 the misnamed doctrines of liberty and equality, which prevailed in France, were disseminated in the West India Islands, through the infernal agency of Victor Hughes, whose emissaries excited the Caribs, and some of the French inhabitants, into an insurrection, which continued for upwards of two years. Many sanguinary contests took place, with various success, which cannot be detailed within the limits of this work; but, ultimately, by the judicious measures of Sir Ralph Abercrombie and General Hunter, the French were subdued, and the Caribs removed to Ruattan, an island in the Bay of Honduras. The devastation occasioned by the enemy cost the proprietors at least, one-third of the value of their properties; but uninterrupted tranquillity has since prevailed, and the fine tract of land in Charlotte parish, called the Carib country, consisting of 5000 acres, has been put into cultivation, and greatly increased the prosperity of the island.

In 1812 the island suffered from an eruption of the Souffriere volcanic mountain, which had been tranquil for nearly a century (from 1718). It was about 3000 feet high, with a crater half a mile in diameter, and 500 feet in depth; in the centre was a conical hill, 200 feet in diameter, and 300 in height, the lower half skirted with luxuriant vegetation, the upper with pure virgin sulphur; various evergreens and aromatic shrubs, covered in exuberant fertility the sides of the capacious crater, the interior of which presented a scene of Alpine seclusion and peaceful-

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ness that can scarcely be imagined. From the fissures of the cone, a thin white smoke exuded, occasionally tinged with a light blue flame; at the base were two small lakes, the one sulphureous and aluminous, the other pure and tasteless. At noon on the 27th of April, thirty days after the destruction of the Caraccas by an earthquake, and during the commotions in the valleys of the Mississippi and of the Ohio, a severe concussion of the earth took place, and a black column of smoke burst from the crater, which was followed by volumes of favillæ, which continued for three days.

An account written at the time says, that on the 30th April, 1812, the reflection of the rising sun on this majestic body of curling vapours was sublime beyond imagination; it afterwards assumed a more sulphureous cast, and in the course of the day a ferruginous and sanguine appearance, with much livelier action in the ascent, a more extensive dilatation, as if almost freed from any obstruction: in the afternoon the noise was incessant, and resembled the approach of thunder still nearer and nearer, with a vibration that affected the feelings and hearing; terror and consternation now seized all beholders. The Caribs settled at '*Morne Ronde*' fled precipitately towards the town; the negroes became confused, forsook their work, looked to the mountain, and as it shook, trembled with the dread of what they could neither understand nor describe; the birds fell to the ground, overpowered with showers of favillæ, unable to keep themselves on the wing; the

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cattle were starving from want of food, as not a blade of grass or leaf was now to be found.

A cousin of mine (Captain George Palmer Hawkins) who was stationed with his regiment at Barbadoes when this eruption took place, informs me that, for four hours, the island was obscured in nearly total darkness, with the dense and unceasing fall of (favillæ) ash-coloured dust, which covered the whole of Barbadoes (distant full sixty miles from St. Vincent) to the depth of several inches, and proved a most valuable fertilizing mould to the then almost worn-out island. The noise of the eruption was thought to be that of hostile fleets, and Captain Hawkins was laughed at for supposing that the dust and thunder could proceed from an island *sixty miles* to *leeward*. When we consider the quantity of ashes which fell at Barbadoes, and that many ships at sea had their decks covered with them, we may suppose that the quantity thrown from the *Souffriere* must have been enormous, and the momentum with which it was ejected tremendous. An upper counter-current of air was doubtless the means of conveying the favillæ to Barbadoes. At the eruption of 1718, a sloop proceeding from St. Christopher's to Barbadoes, had her decks suddenly covered with ashes two or three inches deep.

The sea was much discoloured, but in no wise uncommonly agitated; and it is remarkable, that throughout the whole of this violent disturbance of the earth, it continued quite passive, and did not at any time sympathize with the agitation of the land.

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Scarcely had the day closed, when the flames burst at length pyramidically from the crater through the smoke; the rolling of the thunder became more awful and deafening; electric flashes quickly succeeded, attended with loud claps; and now, indeed, the hurly burly began. Shortly after 7 P. M. the mighty cauldron was seen to simmer, and the ebullition of lava to break out on the north-west side. This immediately after boiling over the orifice, and flowing a short way, was opposed by the acclivity of a higher point of land, over which it was impelled by the immense tide of liquefied fire that drove it on, forming the figure V in grand illumination. Sometimes, when the ebullition slackened, or was insufficient to urge it over the obstructing hill, it recoiled back like a refluent billow from the rock, and then again rushed forward, impelled by fresh supplies, and scaling every obstacle, carrying rocks and woods together in its course down the slope of the mountain, until it precipitated itself into some vast ravine, concealed by the intervening ridges of Morne Ronde. Vast globular bodies of fire were seen projecting from the fiery furnace, and bursting, fell back into it, or over it, on the surrounding bushes, which were instantly set in flames. About four hours from the lava's boiling over the crater, it reached the sea, as we could observe from the reflection of the fire and the electric flashes attending it. About half-past one, another stream of lava was seen descending to the eastward. The thundering noise of the mountain, and the vibration of sound, that had been so

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formidable hitherto, now mingled in the sullen monotonous roar of the rolling lava, became so terrible, that dismay was almost turned to despair. At this time the first earthquake was felt: this was followed by showers of cinders, that fell with the hissing noise of hail, during two hours. This dreadful rain of stones and fire lasted upwards of an hour, and was again succeeded by cinders from three till six in the morning. Earthquake followed earthquake almost momentarily, or rather the whole of this part of the island was in a state of continued oscillation; not agitated by shocks, vertical or horizontal, but undulated like water shaken in a bowl. The break of day, if such it could be called, was truly terrific. Darkness only was visible at eight o'clock, and the birth of May dawned like the day of judgment: a chaotic gleam enveloped the mountain, and an impenetrable haze hung over the sea with black sluggish clouds of a sulphureous cast. The whole island was covered with favillæ, cinders, scoriæ, and broken masses of volcanic matter. It was not until the afternoon that the muttering noise of the mountain sunk gradually into a solemn yet suspicious silence. The damage done according to estimate was inconsiderable, and not more than fifty souls perished. The beds of the Wallibau and Rabacca rivers were completely levelled.

St. Vincent's suffered severely from the effects of the hurricane in 1831, but this beautiful and extraordinary island is now, it is to be hoped, recovering from such disasters. The following is a list of the

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Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, &c. who have administered the government of St. Vincent since the cession of the colony to Great Britain in 1763.—

Brig.-Gen. R. Melville, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief in and over the Southern Caribbee Islands of St. Vincent, Grenada, Dominica, and Tobago, 1763; Brig.-Gen. W. L. Leyborne, Gov. of the Southern Caribbee Islands, as above, 1771; V. Morris, Esq. Gov. 1776; E. Lincoln, Esq. Gov. 1783; J. Seeton, Esq. Gov. 1787; W. Bentinck, Esq. Gov. 1798; D. Ottley, Esq. Pres. 1799; H. W. Bentinck, Esq. Pres. 1805; Sir G. Beckwith, K. B. Gov. 1806; R. Paul, Esq. Pres. 1807; Sir C. Brisbane, Knight, Gov. 1812; R. Paul, Esq. Pres. 1816; Sir C. Brisbane, K.C.B. Gov. 1817; Sir W. J. Struth, Kt. Pres. 1829; Right Hon. Sir G. F. Hill, Bart. Gov. 1831.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—DIVISIONS OF THE ISLAND—MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, &c.—CLIMATE—VEGETABLE KINGDOM—STAPLE PRODUCTS, &c.

Physical Aspect and Geology.—The mountains of St. Vincent are bold, sharp, and abrupt in their terminations, with deep intervening romantic glens, and bound by a lofty and rocky coast. The connected chain of high mountains runs from north to

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south, clothed with immense trees, breaking into subordinate masses towards the sea, of a less elevated description, and intersected by deep ravines in the interior, which gradually widen on the approach to the shore, and become vallies capable of cultivation, as they are generally well supplied with water; this feature is principally descriptive of the north-western side of the island. On the north-east the surface is more level and less broken, and there is a large tract of land at the base of the Souffriere mountain, gradually declining towards the sea, which forms an extensive plain of upwards of six thousand acres, and is the most productive land in the colony.

The delicious Valley of Bucament is five miles long and one wide, entirely open to the sea, with lofty mountains at the upper part and sides—and throughout the vale a clear and rapid river.

The famed botanic garden, about a mile from Kingston, occupies thirty acres of ground, in the form of an oblong square, the lower part level, but soon becoming a gradual ascent until it terminates in a steep hill, a beautiful mountain stream forming its northern boundary, near the upper part of the garden, and in the centre stands the Governor's house, commanding a splendid view—immediately below the capital of the island—in front the deep blue sea and the Grenadine isles—in the distance a magnificent vista, bounded on each side by a long and spacious avenue of lofty forest trees.

The roads on the windward coast are tolerably good for thirty miles, their track in general is near to the sea-side, except in cases of high land, when it

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is necessary to pass along the indentations of the vallies. On the leeward coast, for a distance of twenty-three miles, they are much inferior, the hills being much higher, the circuity of the track is proportionally increased; the latter are little frequented, the passage by sea in canoes being more easy and commodious. The highways are kept in repair by the proprietors of the estates, who have adjoining portions allotted them by an Act of the Legislature, on which they are required to expend an estimated quantity of labour, and for which they are allowed a certain sum from the treasury, on a certificate from the Way-wardens of the parish, who are nominated by the Justices at the February Sessions in each year.

The soil in the vallies is a rich tenacious loam, and occasionally a fine black mould; on the higher regions it assumes a more sandy character, and is less fertile; the lands adjoining the Souffriere are also clay at the bottom, but the surface having been covered with the sand ejected by the volcano in 1812, it presents the feature of a loose porous superficies. The character of this island, Mr. Shephard[1] thinks, is decidedly volcanic, traces of strata which have undergone the action of fire, are visible every where, and huge masses of rock, displaced from their original situations, indicate the powerful agency which alone could have effected such a change; there

[1] *Vide* Historical Account of St. Vincent's, (principally in reference to the Carib war) published by Ridgway, Piccadilly.

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is not a primitive rock in the island, an opinion which is supported by branches of trees and other substances, being frequently discovered in large masses of rock at considerable depths, which must at one time have been in a state of fusion; a remarkable instance is to be seen at the tunnel of Grand Sable.

DIVISION.—The island is divided into five parishes, Saint George, Charlotte, Saint Andrew, Saint David, and Saint Patrick. Within the first, stands the capital, Kingstown,—which is situated in 13° 8′ north latitude, 61° 17′ west longitude, near the south-west extremity of the island, about a mile along the shore of a deep and beautiful bay, protected by a battery on the south, or Cane Garden Point, and by Fort Charlotte on the north-west, which are the chief defences of the island. The fort (distant one mile from Kingston in a direct line, and two miles by the circuitousness of the road), is situated on a rock above the level of the sea, and well fortified; it contains barracks for 600 men, and has thirty-four pieces of artillery of different descriptions, besides several outworks, for the protection of detached buildings.

The road to Fort Charlotte is very steep—so much so, that in looking from the mess-room windows, the sea is seen perpendicularly below, with the Island of Becquia and the Grenadines in the distance;—Old Woman's Point, forming the opposite horn of the Bay of Kingstown and Dorsetshire Hill, about two miles of gradual ascent to windward from the town of Kingston, which it overlooks with an imposing aspect. The garrison was formerly stationed here, but latterly removed to the opposite promontory, as

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a more commanding site. Berkshire Hill, on which is placed Fort Charlotte, is a promontory or high projecting neck of land overhanging the sea, and nearly perpendicular on three of its sides. It completely commands the Town and Bay of Kingston, and can be easily separated from both should it be necessary to cut off the intercourse.

The town, behind which the mountains gradually rise in a semi-circle, terminating at the greatest height in Mount Saint Andrew, consists of three streets, intersected by six others. There are about 300 of the larger sized houses, the lower stories of which are in general built with stone or brick, and the upper of wood, with shingled roofs, while the close adjoining sugar plantations form (particularly when viewed from the harbour,) a very beautiful prospect. The public buildings are substantial, but not elegant. The church is a large heavy brick building, capable of containing 2000 persons; it has an excellently toned organ, a splendid chandelier, and very handsome pulpit, and bishop's throne.

The expenses of this building, which was opened for divine service in 1820, amounted to upwards of 47,000*l.* currency, of which Government contributed 5000*l.* sterling, out of the purchase-money of the Carib lands. The old building was destroyed by the hurricane in 1780.

The Court House is built of stone, and contains two rooms on the upper story appropriated for the sittings of the Council and Assembly, with two Committee Rooms; below the Courts of Justice are held. Here also are the Public Offices of the Registrar and

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Marshal; this building stands in front of the Market Place, and is inclosed with an iron railing; behind it the Gaol, the Cage, and the Treadmill are placed. In the front close to the sea-side, stand the Market House, and the depôt for the Militia Arms. The Wesleyan Missionaries have a commodious wooden Chapel, and the Romanists have commenced a brick Church.

Saint George's Parish extends from Kingstown north to the river Jambou, and contains 9337 acres of land in sugar estates; it has seven rivers capable of turning mills; the different ridges in this parish having been cleared of their wood by the earlier settlers, the clouds are attracted by the more lofty mountains in the interior; and it has been deemed prudent to preserve the timber on an elevated situation, called the King's Hill [1], from future destruction, by an especial Act of the Legislature.

At three miles from Kingstown is the small town of Calliaqua, consisting of 59 houses, and 400 inha-

[1] Baron Humboldt's remarks on this subject ought to be deeply impressed on the mind of every proprietor, not only in the West Indies, but in every country, more especially in a tropical climate. 'By felling the trees that cover the tops and sides of the mountains, men in every climate prepare at once two calamities for future generations, the want of fuel and the scarcity of water. Where forests are destroyed, as they are every where in America by the European planters, with an imprudent precipitation, the springs are entirely dried up or become less abundant, the beds of the rivers, remaining dry during a part of the year, are converted into torrents whenever great rains fall on the heights.'—*Pers. Narrative*, vol. iv. p. 142.

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bitants, its chief attraction is the commodious harbour, and very convenient beach for shipping produce. There is a singularly insulated rock on the north-western side, 260 feet above the level of the sea, on the top of which, Fort Duvernette is constructed; it is ascended by a staircase cut out of the solid stone. On Dorsetshire Hill there are barracks for troops, but in such a dilapidated state, as not to be habitable. Some distance above Calliagua, towards the interior, is the Vigie (or look out), a very commanding situation. The different ridges are here concentrated into one elevation with three conical hills, where the Caribs fixed their camp. Eastward is the very extensive valley of Maniaqua, which has only one singular cleft, or opening, with almost perpendicular sides, through which the river Jambou flows to the sea[1]. Some persons have conjectured that this valley is an exhausted crater, which has been thus drained of its waters: the position is too low to maintain this hypothesis, as the volcanic craters in all the islands are situated on the most lofty mountains.

Charlotte Parish is bounded on the south by St. George's, and northerly by uncultivable lands; it contains 11,849 acres in cultivation, and that part of it called the Carib country, which was only partially settled in 1804, is the most productive in the island.

[1] 'Here,' says Mr. Shephard, 'is a majestic cabbage tree, (Areca oleracea) which in 1814 was ascertained to be 156 feet high, by trigonometrical measurement. This is considerably higher than Mr. Coleridge has admitted, though the existence of Ligon's 300 feet trees is by no means contended for.'

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The southern part consists of a portion of General Monckton's grant of 4000 acres, which he sold for 30,000*l.* sterling, and which was subsequently disposed of in lots by the speculators. This parish is so well supplied with rivers, notwithstanding several were absorbed at the time of the eruption of the Souffriere, that all the mills are worked by water; and the estates are generally larger than in the other parishes.

A tunnel of 200 feet long was cut *through Mount Young* in 1813, which greatly improved the means of communication with the newly-settled country; and a stupendous work was afterwards undertaken by the owner of Grand Sable estate, in cutting another tunnel through the same mountain, lower down and nearer the sea, for the convenience of shipping the produce. The material to be perforated proved to be stone instead of terrass, as was expected—and 360 feet in length were accordingly blasted by drilling in the solid rock, at an expense of about 5000*l.* currency.

Saint Andrew's parish is the first on the leeward side, adjoining the town. It contains 4096 acres; and the valleys being narrower, the estates are small and more compact; neither is it so well supplied with water, except in Buccament Valley, which is one of the most extensive and fertile in the island. In this parish is the small town of New Edinburgh, where the depôt for the commissariat stores is erected.

Saint Patrick is the next in order, on the western coast, containing 5426 acres, with the two small

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towns of Layou and Barouallie. Here the land becomes much more precipitous and difficult of cultivation, and the fertility decreases.

The last is Saint David's, containing 4198 acres, whose characteristic features are the same as the preceding. In Washilabo Valley, and also at the south point, near to the entrance of Châteaubelair Bay, are some fine specimens of basalts. The vicinity of the Souffriere and other lofty mountains ensures the planters in this quarter plenty of rain; and the facilities for shipping produce, compared with the bold eastern coast, are very great, and reduce the expense and risk of an estate considerably.

The Souffriere occupies the north-west point of the island. The lofty summit is only to be seen at intervals, between the rolling clouds, and the sides are furrowed with streams of lava. The crater is three miles in circumference, and 500 feet in depth; it contains within it a conical hill, beautifully streaked with sulphur, and covered with shrubs and flowers. The road to the Souffriere[1] passes through corn-fields and a thicket of long grass and ferns, which reach over a horse's back; the path then can hardly be seen, and seems to be on a narrow ridge, on each side of which is a precipice, that to the west being most terrific. There is considerable danger here, from the difficulty of keeping the path; the shrubs are so thick, the ferns so tough, that they can hardly be broken through, and the grass is sharp and cut-

[1] Captain Alexander recently visited this extraordinary mountain, and I am indebted to him for this graphic account of it.

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ting: the ascent is gradual. Six large trees, half way to the volcano, afford a shade under which to refresh, and to admire the graceful forms of the tree-ferns scattered here and there. For some distance beyond the resting-place the path continues intricate as before, and then the crater ridge is reached. This is more thinly sprinkled with trees; towards the summit it is quite bare, and furrowed with the traces of the mountain torrents and of lava, while sand and ashes are under foot. To the south is a mountain which seems to overhang the traveller; it is richly covered to the top with tufted foliage, which forms a contrast to the scene on the north; there desolation seems to have marked it for its own. The destructive agency of fire has annihilated the vegetation, and left nothing but a bare, barren, and blackened mass of rocks. The naturalist might here pitch his tent, and observe the vegetation improving as he descends the mountain, abounding in lichen, mosses, grasses, shrubs, and trees. There is a convenient nook for leaving the horses; and then, on walking forwards, twenty yards probably, a mighty cloud of vapour may be seen; it fills the crater to the brim, gradually clears off, and then the awful majesty of the scene is unfolded. Instinctively the gazer recoils from the abyss beneath his feet, and his senses are wrapt in amazement; for he sees before him one of the most sublime scenes in nature: the sides of the mighty goblet are themselves mountains, here descending in a perpendicular wall to the water, and there inclining at an angle of 45°. Distinctly marked on the sides of the cauldron is the height of the

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water of the lake at different times, the variation of which takes place doubtless from rains and evaporation. The eastern top of the crater is about 3500 feet above the level of the sea, and there also the depth from the top to the surface of the lake is 300 feet; the circumference of the cauldron, at the top, is about three miles. A cold mist commonly rests on the surface of the green, slimy, and unfathomable water at the bottom; and so horrible is the scene, that one almost expects to see the fluid rise from the surface of the dreary lake. The three peaks to the north of the crater are nearly all of the same height —that is, 4000 feet above the sea. On one of these, Mr. Charles Parker, of Liverpool, (a gentleman of considerable scientific acquirements,) observed the thermometer at forty-five minutes past two P.M. on the 31st of July, 1824, when clear, to stand at 69°; and when hazy, at 70°; whilst about noon, in the plain, it indicated 82° of heat. From the Souffriere, when the day is clear, an extensive view may be had of that wild region the Carib country, now occupied by a mere handful of red Indians.

'In walking along the brink of the crater, it is necessary to clamber over ridges, covered with slippery moss, on a loose soil, without a shrub to hold by, and one false step will send the adventurer rolling down into the Souffriere. After a mile and a half is accomplished, the new crater is seen; it lies to the south-east of the other; and, if the mist is thick and a breeze blowing, as is often the case, it is necessary to crawl forward, on hands and knees; otherwise it is impossible to avoid a fatal accident whilst looking

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into the lesser crater. The two craters are separated only by a narrow ridge or saddle, which, though apparently impassable, a sailor once succeeded in crossing. The new crater is more of an abyss than its neighbour; its sides are more rugged and frightful, but it is much smaller at bottom, where there is a mass of black ashes and sand, and a little water of a red clayey hue; sometimes it is quite dry. It is possible, but it is a perilous enterprize, to descend to the surface of the lake in the great crater; it is necessary to slip down rocks and gulleys, having only small projecting stones, roots of grass, and shrubs, to hold by and stand upon. The rapid descent occupies about twenty minutes, and then there is a small promontory, which juts out a few yards into the water. Here two friends stripped, and determined to bathe in the appalling lake, with its slimy water of unfathomable depth: they plunged into the abyss; but the sensations they experienced on looking up around them were so overwhelming, and the water chilling their bones, they were not long in regaining the land; having performed a feat that none ever before attempted.'

Climate.—This very beautiful isle stands high in reputation as a healthy station: hills and valleys, wood and water, in abundance, are so disposed as to contribute to its salubrity. The hills being of a conical shape, there are no livid surfaces of uncultivated shrubs to harbour miasm, and be swept down occasionally on the inhabitants below with destructive effect. The valleys are not deep or filled with jungle and brushwood, impervious to the sun's rays;

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but the woods, being composed of large trees, and growing from the base to the summit of the mountains, form an agreeable shade, cooling the breeze as it passes through them. Composed as St. Vincent's is, with sloping surfaces and gravelly subsoil, there is hardly any flat ground in the island; and the perpetually flowing streams from the mountains and hills, while they tend to temper the air, make the general scene ever verdant and cheerful. Hurricanes have been severely felt in this island. On the morning of the 11th of August, 1831, St. Vincent was visited by a severe gale of wind, or hurricane, which did very great injury to the plantations on the north and west sides of the island, destroying the greater part of the sugar-works and other buildings in the beautiful vale of the Carib country, to windward, as well as at Châteaubelair and other places in the leeward quarter. Nineteen vessels were driven on shore in Kingstown Bay, of which the greater part were got off in a few weeks; and seven others were totally wrecked in different parts of the government. The gale commenced in Kingstown, from the north, shortly after daylight, and went round to the north-west; it then shifted to the south-west, and subsided about one o'clock in the afternoon; but in other parts of the island it commenced much earlier, and its violence was much greater. The estimate of the losses, as taken by the committees of the legislature, amounted to 163,420*l*.

The following complete Meteorological Table, though given for Kingstown in St. Vincent's, will enable the European reader to form a general idea of the climate of the Caribbee Islands:—

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METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR KINGSTOWN, IN ST. VINCENT'S.

MONTH.	THERMOMETER. In Kingstown.				PLUVIAMETER. Rain, in Inches.				HYGROMETER. Mean Temperature in Kingstown.	
					Kingstown.		8 Miles E. of Town.			
	Lowest.	Highest.	Monthly Mean.	Mean, 1831.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.
January	74½	84½	78·52	80·01	2·56	2·96	2·43	1·98		68·68
February	72	85	78·06	79·29	1·17	3·96	0·31	1·84		67·14
March	73	86	78·12	79·65	2·97	1·42	1·53	1·16		67·99
April	74	86	79·69	80·14	1·16	3·39	0·67	3·95		67·93
May	78	87	81·53	81·05	8·58	4·53	6·44	2·76		69·30
June	76	86½	81·19	81·46	10·70	7·94	7·47	8·05		69·25
July	78	87	81·18	81·16	10·52	9·70	8·31	5 91		70·25
August	77	88	81·79	82·18	11·18	8·56	6 55	7·46	70·84	69·66
September.....	77	89	81·10	81·80	9·35	13·38	11·29	15·14	70·75	69 69
October	78	88	81·40	82·26	6·24	9·31	6·80	8·40	70·25	69·39
November.....	75	87	80·62	81·37	13·19	8·62	8·18	9·68	70·22	69·41
December	73	85	79·81	79·21	9·84	4·33	5·25	2·75	69·94	67 89
Year...	75·46	86·50	80·25	80·80	87·46	78·10	65·23	69·08	70·40	68·86*

* The highest number denotes moisture; the lowest, a dry state of the atmosphere.

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St. Vincent, July 30th, 1824, observed the thermometer at 2 h. 45 m. P.M., on Knole of Benmore, when clear, 69°; during hazy, 70°; about noon, in the plain, 82°. At 5 h. 30 m. P.M., in New Crater, air, 71°; at 6 h. 15 m. P.M., in ditto, water, 68°. At 3 h. 30 m. A.M., July 31st, *cloudy*—top of hill, 65°; lee of ditto, 67°; interior of cave, 71°[1].

At Langley Park, St. Vincent, 850 feet above the level of the sea, in 1822, there fell 120·14 inches of rain; there were 104 dry days; wet ditto, 261: total, 365. Floods, 40 days; thunder-storms, 60 days.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—It would be mere recapitulation to detail the vegetation of St. Vincent's. The following enumeration of the fruits, esculents, &c. in season throughout the year, will demonstrate the great variety of vegetable food which our West India Islands afford :—

January — Sappadillos, pomegranates, papaws, sour-sops, plantains, okros, peppers, cocoa-nuts, pigeon or angola peas, sweet potatoes, yams, creole ditto, tanias, cotton. *February.*—Sappadillos, sour-sops, chicou. *March.*—Sappadillos, sour-sops, granadillos, custard apples, guavas, plantains, cerasees, Ceylon ditto, sweet potatoes, yams. *April.*—Sappadillos, Java plums, mangoes, mamme-sapotas, pine-apples, Otaheite gooseberries, Jamaica plums, cerasees, Ceylon ditto, bread-fruit, silk cotton, galba-seeds for fences. *May.*—Sappadillos, mangoes, granadillos, water-lemons, cashews, pine-apples, Otaheite gooseberries, Jamaica plums, Ceylon cerasees, silk cotton. *June.*—Mangoes, Java plums, Jamaica ditto, cashews, Ceylon

[1] Charles Parker, Esq., of Liverpool, furnished me with this observation.

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cerasees, pigeon peas (nearly out of season), cloves. *July.*—Mangoes, mamme-sapotas, granadillos, cashews, avocado pears, cerasees. *August.*—Mangoes, mamme-sapotas, avocado pears, hog plums. *September.*—Sugar-apples, sea-side grapes, granadillos, hog plums, pompions, Portuguese yams, tanais. *October.*—Sugar-apples, guavas, sea-side grapes, avocado pears, Portuguese yams, coffee. *November.*—Granadillos, chicou, okros, peppers, bread-fruit, coffee. *December.*—Sappadillos, sour-sops, guavas, granadillos, sweet cerasees, pigeon peas, okros, peppers, sorrel, yams, cotton.

The following shows the quantities of staple produce made in St. Vincent and its dependencies, from 1801 to 1831, together with the number of negroes in each parish.

Parishes.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Cotton.	Coffee.	Cocoa*.	Negroes on 1st January, 1831.
	Lbs.	Gallons.	Galls.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	No.
Charlotte Parish	9,689,619	270,603	152,948			561	6,837
St. George's do.	6,849,236	193,853	100,873			250	5,284
St. Andrew's do.	2,514,392	67,034	58,594				1,558
St. Patrick's do.	2,152,648	54,551	45,171				1,747
St. David's do...	1,970,868	45,831	25,244		1,260	7,050	1,612
The Grenadines	1,277,787	25,197	53,195	55,597			2,317
Total...	24,454,550	657,069	436,025	55,597	1,260	7,861	19,355

* Arrow-root, 3763 lbs.

As an historical document, I give the following account, showing the total number of slaves annually employed, and quantity of produce raised, in the

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island of St. Vincent and its dependencies, from 1801 to 1831, both inclusive :—

Years.	Slaves.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton.
	No.	Hds.	Puns.	Puns.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Bales.
1801	17,342	17,699	8702	1492			
1802	17,484	19,317	9012	1322			
1803	17,441	18,371	8929	1119			
1804	20,294	17,235	8804	1660	12,400	5,516	890
1805	19,647	20,981	9332	2851	13,086	1,681	1,493
1806	19,672	20,224	8341	3454	8,904	2,142	1,150
1807	20,525	19,135	8102	2902	14,650	3,745	777
1808	20,977	19,073	8518	2470	27,295	8,718	1,112
1809	20,755	19,186	9369	1388	30,809	11,651	997
1810	20,620	16,127	7591	1441	12,992	3,979	847
1811	20,602	17,059	8519	1981	21,978	10,575	638
1812	20,544	15,872	8740	1078	13,713	4,297	669
1813	20,428	16,106	9383	534	14,649	5,162	742
1814	20,888	17,377	9329	1467	6,998	9,785	616
1815	20,833	17,917	9181	1732	9,176	9,430	448
1816	20,573	19,721	8985	2216	10,473	12,160	621
1817	20,961	18,642	8642	2445	15,989	10,971	291
1818	20,817	19,436	9672	2653	8,243	11,628	560
1819	20,748	*		2123	11,052	10,744	139,012
1820	20,582	16,631	8873	2231	7,947	11,769	256
1821	20,362	18,331	9797	4275	10,620	13,285	402
1822	20,380	19,596	9630	8118	7,857	14,653	661
1823	20,077	17,534	4778	7572	9,553	9,120	644
1824	20,135	18,549	5321	8712	13,743	23,110	628
1825	20,025	20,271	5674	6461	8,707	19,269	416
1826	19,889	19,591	5656	5570	6,990	26,173	533
1827	19,833	18,340	6205	7090	10,103	13,201	251
1828	19,863	21,160	6627	3973	1,873	18,434	369
1829	19,603	18,676	6542		2,572	12,216	237
1830				4360			
1831		13,365	5973		1,260	7,861	

* The quantity of sugar, rum, and molasses manufactured in the Grenadines are not included in the first three years of this return. The figures from 1801 to 1819, I derive from the official account published at St. Vincent in 1819; from 1820 to 1829, Mr. Shephard's work is my authority; 1831 from the St. Vincent Almanack, converted into the denominations here used.

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CHAPTER III.

POPULATION.

POPULATION.—The aborigines of the island were undoubtedly the yellow Caribs, probably emigrants from Guiana[1]. When St. Vincent's was visited by Europeans, two distinct races of men were discovered; they were of different origins, and their appearance and manners plainly corresponded with those of different portions of the globe. One of these tribes had evidently descended from the aborigines of the island; those of the other tribe were evidently intruders; and the great difficulty consists in accounting fairly and fully for their introduction. It is supposed that, about 1675, a ship carrying out negroes from that country for sale, foundered on the coast of Bequia, a small island near to St. Vincent, and that the slaves who escaped from the wreck were received by the inhabitants as brethren. But this was not all: the proprietors of the island gave their daughters in marriage to these strangers; and the race which sprang from this mixture were called Black Caribs, having preserved more of the primitive colour of their fathers than the lighter hue of their mothers. The yellow Caribs are of a low stature,

[1] For a description of these people, I refer to the Book on British Guiana.

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the black are tall and stout; and this doubly savage race speak with a degree of vehemence which seems like anger.

At length some difference arose between these two classes, of which the French in Martinico resolved to avail themselves, and, as is usual, to profit by the ruin of both parties; but the smallness of the numbers sent against the Black Caribs, and the defection of the Yellow Caribs, who refused to supply such dangerous allies with any of the succours which they had promised them to act against their rivals, together with the impossibility of coming up with enemies who kept themselves concealed in the woods, were circumstances which combined to disconcert this rash and violent enterprize. The Gallic invaders were therefore forced to re-embark, after losing many valuable lives. But the triumph of the Black Caribs did not prevent their suing for peace; they even subsequently invited the French to come and live with them, swearing sincere friendship. The proposal was accepted; and in the year 1719 many of the French inhabitants of Martinico removed to St. Vincent's. When the French came, they brought their slaves with them to clear and till the ground. The Black Caribs, shocked at the idea of resembling persons who were degraded by slavery, and fearing that in process of time their own colour, which betrayed their origin, might be made a pretence for enslaving them, took refuge in the thickest parts of the woods; and, in order to create and perpetuate a visible distinction between their race and

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the slaves brought into the island, and likewise in imitation of the practice of the Yellow Caribs, they compressed, so as to flatten, the foreheads of all their new-born infants, and this was thereafter concluded as a token of their independence. The next generation thus became, as it were, a new race; they gradually quitted the woods, erected huts, and formed little communities on the coast. By degrees, they claimed a portion of the territory possessed by the Caribs; and having learned the use of fire-arms, which they procured from the French traders, on being refused a friendly participation in the landed property, established themselves as a separate tribe, elected a chief, recommenced hostilities against the Yellow Caribs, and by force brought their adversaries to terms of accommodation, by which it was agreed to divide equally the lands situated on the leeward coast. It happened, however, after this division, that the Black Caribs experienced a most mortifying disappointment; for most of the new planters from Europe, and from the French settlements in the West Indies, landed and settled near the Yellow Caribs, where the coast is most accessible. This decided preference occasioned a new war, in which the Yellow Caribs were always defeated, and at length obliged to retire to the windward parts of the island. Some fled to the continent, and some to Tobago; the few that remained lived separately from the blacks, who became the sole masters of all the lands on the leeward shore, assumed the right of conquerors, and obliged the European planters to

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repurchase the lands, for which they had already paid the Yellow Caribs [1].

While these differences were in progress, and while the French were gradually gaining a footing in the island, George the First granted it to the Duke of Montague, who, in 1723, sent out a small armament to take possession; but the English, on their arrival, found the French influence under the appearance of protection so predominant, and the determination of the natives to admit no Europeans to a permanent settlement there so fixed, that they were glad to abandon their alleged proprietorships; and when the Duke, at a subsequent period, endeavoured to establish his claim before the Privy Council, it was disallowed.

Notwithstanding the difficulties created by the Caribs, the French prevailed, by means of continual reinforcements of men and money, and superior skill in agriculture and commercial affairs; so that in less than twenty years, 800 whites, and 3000 black slaves, were employed in the cultivation of commodities for exportation, which yielded a sum equal to 63,625*l.* sterling. The expedition which was sent against Martinico in 1762, under General Monckton and Admiral Rodney, subsequently captured St. Vincent's, and a war between the British and Caribs soon

[1] A Frenchman having produced to a Black Carib chief a deed of land that he had purchased of a Yellow Carib, was told he did not know what the paper contained, but, pointing to his own arrow, said if he did not give him the sum he demanded, he would set fire to and burn down his house that very night.—SHEPHARD'S *St. Vincent.*

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followed. The result of several severe contests was (as stated under the general history of the island) the final subjugation of the Yellow and Black Caribs, and their deportation to the number of 5080 from the island to Ruattan in Honduras Bay, after costing the colonists in expenses and losses 900,000*l.* sterling, and a considerable sacrifice of European life [1].

The following shows the Population of St. Vincent and its dependencies at several intervals :—

Year.	Negroes	Caribs.	Whites.	Coloured	Slaves.
1735	6000	4000	..	..	
1764	..	..	2104	..	7,414
1787	..	..	1450	300	11,853
1805	..	..	1600	450	16,500
1812	..	..	1053	1482	24,920
1825	..	..	1301	2824	23,780
1831	..	..	..	..	22,997

The progressive increase or decrease of the Slave Population from 1817 to 1831, was—

Years.	Censuses.		Increased by Birth.		Decreased by Death.	
	Males.	Females	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.
1817	12,743	12,475	...	...	...	...
1822	12,007	12,245	1298	1358	2275	1930
1825	11,685	12,095	918	934	1157	949
1828	11,583	12,116	939	890	1117	903
1831	11,216	11,781	919	862	1230	1036

[1] For a very able and interesting account of the Carib war, *vide* Mr. Shephard's History of St. Vincent, before referred to.

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The number of slaves now registered is 22,997; average value of each, 58*l.*; relative value of all, 1,341,491*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.* for the island, 592,508*l.*

FINANCE.—The revenue of the island is stated by Mr. Shephard at about 26,000*l.* per annum, and raised by an annual tax act, by which assessments on all the staple commodities of the island are made, and a proportionate per centage on the incomes of merchants and other persons, with a poll tax on unattached slaves; Commissioners to carry the act into execution, are named for each parish, and the returns are directed to be given in to the Treasurer in January, from whence the rates are calculated according to the estimated expenses of the island, and submitted to the Assembly. The colony derives no pecuniary assistance from Great Britain; the garrison, the proportionate expense of the naval establishment, the packets, and the home salary of the Governor, form the only burthen, if such it can be called, sustained by the mother country.

The estimated expenses of the colony, for the year 1832, were,—*Salaries to Public Officers*, H. Ex. the Governor, 5000*l.*; Chief Justice, 1200*l.*; Attor. Gen. 500*l.*; Clerk of Council, 200*l.*; Ditto of Assembly, 500*l.*; Messenger and House-keeper, 200*l.*; Clerk to Magistrates, 50*l.*; Registrar of Slaves, 250*l.*; Treasurer, 1200*l.*; Colonial Agent, 350*l.* currency, and 840*l.* sterling; Signal men, 85*l.*; Clerk of the Market, 100*l.*; Overseer of Treadmill, 150*l.*; Chief

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Constable, 300*l.*; Extra Constable, 300*l.*—10,875*l.* *Military Establishment.*—Adj. South. Regt. Militia, 100*l.*; N. Reg. 50*l.*; Ditto Queen's Companies, 50*l.*; Armourer, 100*l.*; Repairing Military Roads, 210*l.*; Clearing the Parade Ground, 150*l.*—660*l.* *Clerical Establishment.*—Rector of St. George and St. Andrew's Parishes, 1060*l.*; Parish Clerk to ditto, 100*l.*; Organist to ditto, 300*l.*—1460*l.* Rector of Charlotte Parish, 700*l.*; Parish Clerk to ditto, 66*l.*—766*l.* Rector Leeward Parishes, 700*l.*; ditto, House-rent, 100*l.*; Parish Clerk to Leeward, 66*l.*—866*l.* Rector of the Grenadines, 700*l.*; Parish Clerk to ditto, 33*l.* —733*l.* Estimated Expenses for repairing Churches, &c.—4825*l.* *Annuities.*—To Militia Men, &c, 286*l.*; to Manumitted Slaves, 420*l.*; Arrears to ditto, 706*l.* —1412*l.* *Public Roads.*—Annual Repairs, 2715*l.*; ditto, Vigie and Owia, 199*l.*; Arrears of Annual Repair, 2733*l.*; allowed extra for heavy rains, 500*l.* —6147*l.*—Repairs to Governor's residence, 3000*l.*; Accounts against the Public, 3500*l.*; Arrears of ditto, 1871*l.*; Allowed for contingencies, 3000*l.*; Rewards under the Slave Act, to Nurses and Midwives, 3000*l.*; Registrar of Slaves, for Triennial Return, 1000*l.*— 15,371*l.* Total, 39,290*l.*

The taxes, &c. to meet these estimates, were— Due by the Treasurer's account, to 31st December, 1831, per his statement, 877*l.*; Deficiency of White Servants, 1908*l.*; Duties on Liquors, 126*l.*; Powder Officer, 418*l.*; Transient Traders, 45*l.*; Custom-House, 31*l.*; Outstanding Taxes, 12,904*l.*; Liquor

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Licences, 1266*l.*; Amount of Produce, Poll and House Tax, at two per cent. 12,826*l.*; 1621 Negroes, at 5*s.*, 405*l.*—30,810*l.*

The expenditure of the Island from the Treasurer's Books, was, in Currency—

£.	£.	£.	£.
1806..16,433	1812..19,583	1818..37,858	1824..38,034
1807..28,536	1813..24,123	1819..85,126	1825..23,134
1808..22,504	1814..22,036	1820..39,710	1826..36,173
1809..16,158	1815..18,633	1821..18,130	1827..32,327
1810..19,868	1816..24,250	1822..37,712	1828..31,671
1811..21,253	1817..22,133	1823..29,908	1829..25,361

MONETARY SYSTEM.—Current value of the coins in circulation within this Government. *Silver Coins*—Spanish dollar, 10*s.*; half dollar, 5*s.*; Carolus, 2*s.*; Pistareen, 1*s.* 6*d.*; Quarter Colonial coin, 4-dwts. 9-grs., 2*s.* 6*d.*; English shilling, 3-dwts. 16-grs. 2*s.* 3½*d.*

Gold Coins.—Doubloon	17 dwts.	8 grs.	16 dol.	£8	0	0	
Half ditto	8	— 16 —	8 —	4	0	0	
Guinea..	5	— 8 —	44 5ths	2	8	0	
Sovereign	5	— 3½—	43 5ths	2	6	1½	

Copper Coins.—English penny piece, and stampee, 2½*d.* each; ditto, halfpenny, 1⅛*d.*; dog, 1½*d.*

The gold coins in circulation are exclusively Spanish and Portuguese, the doubloon at the value of sixteen dollars, with the aliquot parts in proportion; the Johannes pass by weight at nine shillings the penny-weight; formerly this coin was the most common throughout the islands, each colony mutilating their own by plugs and various marks, to prevent

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exportation; from these practices the coin became so deteriorated, that in 1818 it was called in at a considerable loss, and doubloons came into more general circulation. The silver coins are the dollar, which passes at ten shillings currency, and colonial coins of one-fourth, one-eighth, and one-sixteenth: the British silver occasionally forms part of the commissariat issues, from which source nearly all the bullion of the country arises, but it is speedily collected by the merchants for remittances to Europe, and is therefore of little benefit as a general circulating medium; the English copper money, and a barbarous colonial coin, with the equally barbarous names of Stampees and Black Dogs, complete the catalogue. The sterling value of the dollar being four shillings and fourpence, gives $230\frac{10}{13}$*l.* as the currency value of 100*l.*

COMMERCE.—In 1832, according to Mr. Shephard, there were shipped from St. Vincent's to Great Britain, of *sugar*, 12,477 hogsheads, 441 tierces, 197 barrels; of *rum*, 225 puncheons: of *molasses*, 2398 puncheons. To the British American Provinces, sugar, 91 hogsheads, 116 tierces, 441 barrels; rum, 2239 puncheons; molasses, 1111 puncheons. To the British West India islands, and to other ports there, were small quantities of the above-mentioned items, making a total of sugar, 12,647 hogsheads; 567 tierces, 718 barrels; of rum, 3266 puncheons; 87 hogsheads, 21 barrels; of molasses, 4206 puncheons; and there were also some small shipments to Europe, including 631 boxes of arrow root, according to the Board of Trade.

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Quantity and value of various Articles of Merchandize exported from St. Vincent's, during the year 1832:—

Description of Goods.		Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.
			£.
Arrow Root	lbs.	19,530	446
Cocoa, Colonial	,,	290	10
Coffee	,,	2,352	56
Copper, Old	,,	110,520	3,307
Corn, viz. Wheat Flour	Barrels	20	40
Cotton Wool, Colonial	lbs.	66,900	1,378
Dye and Hardwood—Log-wood, Colonial	Tons	6	65
Ginger	lbs.	600	13
Hides	Number	109	112
Molasses	Gallons	391,190	21,594
Spirits, Rum	,,	369,877	26,698
——— Shrub	,,	119	28
Sugar	lbs.	21,917,056	200,454
Tobacco	,,	300	3
Tortoiseshell	,,	270	264
Wine of all sorts	Gallons	450	115
Miscellaneous Articles	Value		760
Total			255,343

St. Vincent's Exports, *continued*:—

Year.	SUGAR.	MOLASSES.	RUM.
	Hogsheads.	Puncheon.	Puncheon.
1827	17,068	5,086	4,968
1828	19,877	4,673	5,928
1829	17,356	8,980	6,105
1830	17,778	5,918	2,498
1832	12,647	4,206	3,206

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The value of the total maritime trade of the island, and the amount of shipping therein employed is thus shown :—

TOTAL MARITIME TRADE OF ST. VINCENT'S, AND AMOUNT OF SHIPPING EMPLOYED THEREIN.

Value of Imports from						Shipping Outwards to								Total.	
						Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.					
Years.	Great Britain.	West Indies.	North America.	Foreign States.	Total.	Years.	No. of Vessels.	Tons.	No. of Vessels.	Tons.	No. of Vessels.	Tons.			
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.										
1830	57,135	25,088	43,282	22,801	148,298	1830	45	12,732	292	17,735	91	3588		428	34,055
1831	96,356	61,952	41,005	53,562	252,875	1831	57	10,891	348	20,260	76	5635		461	36,786
1832					154,274	1832	33	9,325	263	16,543	86	7908			
Value of Exports to						Shipping Inwards from									
1830	263,347	37,564	34,597	2,536	338,045	1830	36	10,346	245	16,417	104	5532		385	32,295
1831	219,302	31,758	28,129	8,021	287,211	1831	46	13,486	294	17,069	106	7740		446	38,295
1832					255,343	1832	39	11,624	251	15,624	102	9777			

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FORM OF GOVERNMENT, LAWS, ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, MILITARY [1], &c.—The authorities which constitute the Government of the Island, are, the Governor, Council, and Assembly, the former is Chancellor, Ordinary, and Vice Admiral. His duties are regulated by instructions from His Majesty, which are said to have been originally framed in the time of Charles II. for the Island of Jamaica, and have been adopted for the other islands; to these may be added his Majesty's Proclamation of the 7th of October, 1763, which may be called the foundation of the insular constitution. By this authority the general assemblies are summoned, and the powers of enacting laws, as near as may be to the laws of England, are given; the authority for erecting Courts of Judicature, with the liberty of appeal, is also recognized in this document, which was promulgated after the treaty of Paris.

The Governor's salary, which he is required by his instructions to apply for on his first meeting the Council and Assembly, is 4000*l.* currency.

The Council consists of twelve Members, five or six of whom are usually named in the Governor's Commission, and the remainder supplied by recommendation of the Governor, or by mandamus; five in number constitute a board, and when the original number is reduced to seven, the Governor has a power of nomination to supply the vacancies.

[1] I am indebted for this section (and indeed I ought to say that I have only been enabled by means of the same gentleman to make the St. Vincent chapter complete) to the intelligence and energetic zeal of Mr. Shephard, the barrister, a resident on the island, as before adverted to.

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By a late rule of the Colonial Office, no Counsellor can be absent longer than twelve months; after that period his name is directed to be struck out, but no objection appears to his re-admission, at a subsequent period, as the junior member.

The Council sit in two capacities, privy and legislative; in the former the Governor presides, in the latter the senior member, under the title of President, on whom also the temporary Government devolves on the absence, or death of a Governor. Since the appointment of a Bishop, he has been sworn in, ex officio, a Member in Council in all the islands composing his diocese, and where the date of his appointment has preceded that of a Governor, he is also Ordinary.

The Assembly consists of nineteen members, three for each of the five parishes, two for the town of Kingstown, and the like number for the Grenadines; the qualification of Members for the parishes and islands, is fifty acres of land in cultivation, or producing an income of 300*l.* currency a year, and for the town, a house of the yearly value of 100*l.* The titles of the candidates to their property must appear to have been registered in the office twelve months, except in cases of wills, and conveyance of property executed in Great Britain. Electors must have a freehold of ten acres, or a house in Kingstown of twenty pounds yearly value, or of ten pounds elsewhere, registered in like manner. Elections take place under the authority of a writ issuing from the Governor and Council, on an application from the Speaker, to the Provost Marshal General, and the whole regulations on this subject, are prescribed by an act of the legis-

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lature, which passed in 1786; these three branches assimilate their proceedings as near as possible to those of Great Britain; their meetings are quarterly, and the acts that are passed proclaimed by the Marshal, and enrolled in the Registrar's Office. These acts may be divided into three classes, the first temporary and purely colonial, which take effect immediately on their publication; the second, such as have a clause annexed suspending their operation until his Majesty's pleasure be known; and the third, the permanent laws, which if not confirmed in two years from their enactment, are to be considered as disallowed. In strictness, the Governor is not authorized to pass any law, repealing one which may have received the royal approbation, without a suspending clause; but this in the cases of the old laws, has been frequently overlooked. The Attorney-General has a salary of 500*l.* currency per annum, which is in part given to him for framing the bills, which may be required, but he is not obliged to introduce them to either house, and a considerable difficulty has frequently occurred from the want of an accredited person, as the organ of Government, who might introduce the measures proposed by the crown through the Colonial Secretary to either house. At present the Governor communicates by letters with the President and Speaker, but no member is intrusted with the charge of carrying any bills through the different stages prescribed by the Legislature.

COURTS OF JUSTICE.—The supreme court for civil causes is called the Court of King's Bench and Common Pleas, where the Chief Justice presides; his

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salary is 2000*l.* currency. There are three other Assistant Justices, who are not professional persons, and act without any salary. This Court holds its sittings for the trial of causes once in every month, from March to August, when executions for debt can be obtained in about ten weeks, from the entering day. The proceedings are regulated by a Court Act. The Court of Sessions for the trial of criminal offences is held twice a year. The Chief Justice is President, and the Members of Council and Judges sit according to seniority. The Court of Error for appeals from the King's Bench and Common Pleas, is composed of the Governor and Council. The Governor is also sole Chancellor, and from these two last Courts an appeal lies to his Majesty in Council [1].

The Militia consists of all the free inhabitants between the ages of eighteen and fifty-five, and is formed into one regiment of 580 men, two King's companies of 150 men, and two Queen's companies of 125 men, and twenty-five cavalry; these assemble for exercise once in every month, at the different stations in the island. The Legislature has endeavoured to keep up an effective force of white persons by requiring the planters to keep one white person for every fifty slaves, under a penalty of 50*l.* for each deficiency.

The garrison of British regulars for the protec-

[1] In consequence of the reports of the Commissioners of Legal Inquiry, it may be fully expected that the whole judicial system of the West Indies will be greatly modified and improved, for the defects of the present must be obvious to the most superficial observer.

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tion of the island, since the peace, has been reduced to one wing of a regiment, with a few artillerymen: during the war two regiments were the complement, which the Government undertook to furnish, in consideration of the assistance which was given by the colony at different periods, towards building the forts and barracks, and of maintaining the roads thereto at the public expense of the colony.

The Police is excellent, especially in the town of Kingstown; it is regulated by three Town Wardens who are annually appointed, and a Chief Constable, with very extensive powers; the tread-mill affords an efficient mode of punishment, heretofore unknown in St. Vincent's.

The Registration of real Property is requisite, and the deeds of conveyance must be acknowledged either personally, or by attorney, before the Registrar. The Provost-Master-General executes an office corresponding to that of sheriff, and inquests are regularly held by the Coroner in all necessary cases.

The commerce of the island is regulated by the officers of his Majesty's Customs; a Collector, Comptroller, and three Waiters constitute the establishment; the regulations of trade having been much simplified, and amended of late years, by the repeal of several hundred Acts, and consolidating their provisions under six or eight distinct heads. The fees on shipping are now abolished, and the salaries of the officers are defrayed from the dutiable articles imported from foreign ports.

Ecclesiastical.—The church in Kingstown having been destroyed in the hurricane of 1780, the present

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structure was finished in 1820, and an Act was passed for the building of churches in the different parishes, each of which is supplied with a minister.

The salary of the rector of Saint George and Saint Andrew, including a compensation for a house and glebe, is 1060*l.* per annum; the other salaries are 700*l.* currency, and the Legislature having resolved on the expenditure of 5000*l.* sterling on ecclesiastical improvements, and the Government having directed a sum arising from the sale of crown lands to be appropriated to similar purposes, it may be confidently assumed, that in a few years, there will be sufficient buildings of every description erected[1].

By the Act 6th Geo. IV. c. 88, amended by the 7th Geo. IV. c. 4, his Majesty has graciously erected the West India Islands into two Sees, the salaries of the Bishops, payable out of the 4½ per cent. duties, are 4000*l.* sterling each, with a provision for a retiring pension of 1000*l.*, after a service of ten years; and the sum of 4300*l.* is at the disposal of the Bishop of Barbadoes, for the maintenance of ministers, catechists, and schoolmasters in the diocese, with a limitation that no minister's salary is to exceed 300*l.* sterling. This is the first instance of such a provision in the West Indies,

[1] There are at the disposal of the Crown in St. Vincent, of land *saleable* and fit for *immediate* culture, about 2500 acres in the north-east quarter; at the north end about 500; at the north-west 600; and in the interior of the parishes of St. George, St. Patrick, St. Andrew, and St. Dayid, 500;—in all 4100, and as much more remotely situate and difficult of access.

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(except in the case of the Judges in the Prize Courts) and cannot be too highly commended. Mr. Shephard rightly observes, that, if the Government desire to be well and faithfully served by persons adequately qualified to execute the trusts reposed in them, they must secure them a remuneration for their advancing years; in most instances the colonial salaries barely afford a decent maintenance, and many persons have been obliged to continue in office, from necessity, long after they have been enervated by disease, or disqualified from age. Such a system also tends to check any disposition towards the undue acquirement of the emoluments of office; it will be found most beneficial to both parties, and will confer lasting honour on the provident humanity of his Majesty.

These episcopal appointments have already been of great utility, the inferior clergy have been regulated, and a system adopted for conveying general instruction to the negroes by means of catechists and schoolmasters. The number of places of worship are eleven, capable of containing 2500 persons, and usually attended by 1870; the total expense is 3000*l*. The residence of the Bishop is in Barbadoes, from whence he makes occasional visitations to the different islands in his diocese, and it is pleasing to add, that all authorities agree in representing the present Bishop as singularly active, and energetic in the performance of his spiritual duties towards the more helpless classes of his fellow-creatures. The Wesleyans have five Missionaries on the Island, and in 1835, at Kingstown, in Society, 239 free, and 620 slaves; Princetown, ditto, 13 and 112; at Châ-

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teaubelair, ditto, seven and 265; and at Layon, eight and 91 : grand total, free 267, slaves 1088. Their schools are in an encouraging state.

EDUCATION.—The want of education has been a sore evil in the Colonies, but a decided improvement has taken place, under the auspices of the Bishop, and it is to be hoped that in a few years the parochial schools will manifest their utility. The state of public education in 1830 was:—males, 135; females, 74;—total, 209. There is a laudable institution by a few coloured persons in Kingstown, for the education of the coloured poor, which with very limited means, has been productive of great advantages, and deserves more patronage and support, than it has hitherto received from the white population. The Legislature has removed the disabilities attendant on colour, and stricken the fetters from the slave; but I agree with the ingenious author I have before cited, that these concessions will be of no actual benefit to that race, unless they become qualified by education and morals, to assume their advanced station in society, and to perform the duties required of them, and this will depend on freedom from commercial restrictions at home as well as on their own exertions to obtain property by their industry, and respect by their integrity[1].

[1] The dependencies within this Government are the islands of Bequia, 3700 acres, with a very fine harbour, called Admiralty Bay; Union, 2150 acres; Mustique, 1203 acres; and Canouan, 1777 acres. There are also the lesser islands of Balliceaux and Battawia, Myera, Petit St. Vincent, Islet à Quatre, Isle of Wash, Church Island, Petit Nevis, Three

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Ramiers, Pillories, Savan, Petit Bermuda, Petit Canouan, Barbaroux Island, or Petit Curaçoa, Two Taffia Quays, Two Baleines, Two Catholics, Prune Island, Four Tobago Quays, Umbrella Quay, and Petit Martinique. The cultivation in all these islands is very much reduced, from the woods having been cut down, and the consequent decrease of rain; the seas abound with fish; many whales make their appearance in February and March, and the air is remarkably fine and salubrious.

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BOOK IV.

ST. LUCIA.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—ASPECT—CLIMATE—POPULATION—COMMERCE—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—REVENUE—MONIES—GOVERNMENT, ETC.

THIS wildly beautiful island is in north latitude 13° 50′, west longitude 60° 58′, about thirty-two miles in length, from north to south, and twelve broad, containing 37,500 acres of land, was discovered on St. Lucia's Day, and first settled on by the English about 1635, or 1639[1], since which period it has undergone various changes, being sometimes declared neutral, (as by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle,) next in the possession of the French, then captured or transferred to the British, and *vice versâ*. By the treaty of Paris in 1763, St. Lucia was allotted to France; and Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago to England; during the American war,

[1] The Caribs, it is said, destroyed most of the early settlers, in consequence of an English ship carrying off some of their people, who had gone on board the vessel to trade.

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in 1779, it was taken by the British, but restored to the French by the peace of 1783; it was conquered at the commencement of the French revolutionary war in 1794, evacuated in 1795, and retaken in 1796; by the treaty of Amiens it was restored to France in 1801, and recaptured by us in 1803. The detail of the hard fought battles for the acquisition of this isle would be out of place, it may suffice to state that the fortune of war, in 1803, has finally left it an English colony, with a French population, manners, language, and, I may add, in some respects, feelings.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The first approach to this island, (which is divided longitudinally by a ridge of lofty hills,) from the south, is very remarkable. An accurate observer, and delightful writer, thinks it offers one of the most striking combinations of various kinds of scenery ever witnessed.

"Two rocks, which the gods call Pitons, and men Sugar-loaves, rise perpendicularly out of the sea, and shoot to a great height in parallel cones, which taper away towards the summit like the famous spires of Coventry. These mountains[1], which are feathered from the clouds to the waves with evergreen foliage, stand like pillars of Hercules on either side of the entrance into a small but deep and beautiful bay. A

[1] The Author of *Six Months in the West Indies* (Henry Nelson Coleridge, Esq.), calls them '*rocks*;' they are rather mountains, round and high, and appear to have been volcanoes. In one deep valley there are several ponds, where the water bursts up with great violence, and retains some of its heat even at the distance of 6000 toises from its source.

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pretty little village or plantation appears at the bottom of the cove; the sandy beach stretches like a line of silver round the blue water, and the cane fields form a broad belt of vivid green in the background. Behind this, the mountains, which run north and south throughout the island, rise in the most fantastic shapes, here cloven into steep-down chasms, there darting into arrowy points, and every where shrouded or swathed, as it were in wood, which the hand of man will probably never lay low. The clouds, which within the tropics are infallibly attracted by any woody eminences, contribute greatly to the wildness of the scene; sometimes they are so dense as to bury the mountains in darkness; at other times they float transparently like a silken veil; frequently the flaws from the gulleys perforate the vapours, and make windows in the smoky mass; and then again, the wind and the sun will cause the whole to be drawn upwards majestically, like the curtain of a gorgeous theatre."

While sailing along the shore the variety of scenery is exquisitely beautiful: the back ground continues mountainous, but every three or four miles appear the most lovely little coves and bays, fringed with the luxuriant cane fields, and enlivened by the neatly laid-out mansions of the planters; while the flotillas of fishing and passage, or drogher boats, with their long light masts and latteen sails, add life and animation to the scene. On the west coast there is an excellent harbour, called the *Little Careenage*, with three careening places, one for large ships, and the

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others for frigates. It is accessible only to one vessel at a time, the entrance defended by several batteries, but capable of holding thirty ships of the line.

The plains throughout the island are well watered, and the mountains clothed with the finest timber.

Castries, the only town in the isle, is situate at the bottom of a long and winding bay of the same name. The fort is situate on the summit of *Morne-fortune*, which is about two miles of exceeding steep road, or path, from Castries. Mr. Coleridge thinks the road perilous; it is in a zig-zag of acute angles, and is thus described by that delightful traveller :—

"As it rains nine months out of the twelve in St. Lucia, there are deep bricked trenches or channels traversing the path at each turn, for the double purpose of carrying off the water, and of checking a redundant population. But when I got to the top—oh never will that moment be forgotten by me!—I remember staring without breath or motion, as if I had been really enchanted. I never saw heaven so close before. The sky did not seem that solid ceiling with gold nails stuck in it, which it does in England, but a soft transparency of showery azure, far within which, but unobscured by its intervention, the great stars were swimming and breathing, and looking down like gods of Assyria. Not only Venus and Sirius, and the glorious Cross of our Faith in the south, and

'Charlemagne amongst the starry heavens,'

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low in the north, shone like segments of the moon; but hosts of other luminaries of lesser magnitude flung each its particular shaft of splendor on the tranquil and shadowy sea. As I gazed, the air burst into atoms of green fire before my face, and in an instant they were gone: I turned round, and saw all the woods upon the mountains illuminated with ten thousands of flaming torches moving in every direction, now rising, now falling, vanishing here, reappearing there, converging to a globe, and dispersing in spangles. No man can conceive from dry description alone the magical beauty of these glorious creatures[1]."

Pigeon Island is six miles distant from the harbour of St. Lucia, and, in a military point of view, is of great importance to the colonies, being within a short distance of Martinique, and commanding a view of every ship that may enter or depart from that island: it is, moreover, valuable for a very fine and extensive anchorage between it and the north part of St. Lucia. The isle is about half a mile in length

[1] "There are two sorts, the small fly, which flits *in and out* in the air, the body of which I have never examined; and a kind of beetle, which keeps more to the woods, and is somewhat more stationary, like our glow-worm. This last has two broad eyes on the back of its head, which, when the phosphorescent energy is not exerted, are of a dull parchment hue; but, upon the animal's being touched, shoot forth two streams of green light as intense as the purest gas. But the chief source of splendour is a cleft in the belly, through which the whole interior of the beetle appears like a red-hot furnace."

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north and south, and a quarter broad; the side towards the sea, westward, is a perpendicular cliff, from the ridge or crest of which there is a gradual descent to the opposite shore, and level ground enough to erect a barrack for 500 men. A barrack and hospital has been constructed on this healthy spot, and it is one of the most salubrious that can be expected in a tropical clime. St. Lucia is divided into Basseterre, the low or leeward territory; and Capisterre, the high or windward territory. The former is well cultivated and most populous; but the climate is unwholesome from the abundance of stagnant waters and morasses. The latter division is also unwholesome, but it becomes of course less so as the woods are cleared away. Indeed, the health of all tropical countries will be found to be in proportion to their cultivation.

POPULATION.—In 1777, the island contained—whites, 2397; free coloured, 1050; slaves, 10,752; total, 14,199.

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RETURN OF THE FREE POPULATION, BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS IN ST. LUCIA, 1832.

Name of the County or District.		Whites.		Free Blacks.		Aliens and Resident Strangers.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
		Males.	Females	Males.	Females		Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Commerce.			
1st District..	Castries	170	180	500	555	1	660	580	45	170	4	90
	Ause la Rage	20	7	103	106	...	...	...	...	4	6	5
	Gros Islet	33	24	126	164	...	640	240	...	48	...	29
2d District...	Souffriere	82	112	103	147	10	895	51	16	53	...	58
	Choiseul	24	17	31	51	12	293	20	...	28	1	20
	Laborie	25	34	156	182	...	807	...	...	29	1	13
3d District...	Vieux Fort	45	46	95	108	7	14	11	2	30	3	28
	Micoud and Praslin	15	7	84	114	...	635	...	1	35	1	34
	Dauphin	8	...	68	72	15	203	200	...	12	...	14
	Dennery	11	6	31	32	...	530	312	1	14	...	11
	Total	433	433	1297	1531	45	4177	1414	65	423	16	307

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The slave population from 1816 to 1831 was—

Censuses.			Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumission.
Years.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1816	7394	8891	...	...	...	...	...
1819	6811	8228	385	344	1087	906	51
1822	6297	7497	478	446	691	643	69
1825	6325	7392	591	616	556	483	184
1828	6280	7381	587	606	586	416	219
1831	6119	7229	581	549	573	475	366

By the Slave Emancipation Return St. Lucia contains 13,348 slaves; average value of each, from 1822 to 1830 £56. 18s.; relative value £759,890. Proportion of £20,000,000, to which the colony is entitled, £335,627.

PRODUCE.

Name of the County or District.	CROPS. Nature of the Crop, and Number of Acres of Land in each Crop.							
	Canes, Acres.	Coffee, Acres.	Cocoa, Acres.	Cotton, Acres.	Provisions, Acres.	Pasture.	Total Number of Acres in Crop.	Number of Acres of uncultivated Land.
Castries	600	18	12	...	330	1050	2010	5,283
Anse la Rage....	256	6	15	...	166	...	443	...
Gros Islet.....	296	35	3	3	215	438	490	3,470
Souffriere.....	633	211½	37½	...	711	708	2116½	3,960
Choiseul	291	75	19½	9	388½	450	1233	1,968
Laborie.....	93½	30½	33½	...	93½	201¾	251½	1,076¾
Vieux Fort.....	505	15	7	...	377	527	904	3,484
Micaud and Praslin	582	1	...	2	309	435	1329	...
Dennery	195	...	44	...	144	263	337	2,072
Dauphin	190	15½	4½	...	230	214	654	...
Total.....	3641½	407½	176	14	2964	4286¾	9768	21,313¾

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RETURN OF STOCK AND PRODUCE, ST. LUCIA, 1832.

Name of the County or District.	STOCK, Number of.				PRODUCE. Nature of the Produce, and Quantity of each.				
	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Rum.	Molasses.
					Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Galls.	Galls.
Castries	180	220	300	150	600,000	5,000	3,500	8,000	17,900
Anse la Rage	94	173	65	57	428,500	400	5,000	3,500	12,550
Gros Islet	73	391	350	157	553,000	895	...	1,000	25,000
Souffriere	51	212	130	24	691,500	69,800	8,817	11,027	14,250
Choiseul	41	135	97	70	146,600	6,867	1,200	2,000	3,272
Laborie	13	35	27	2	48,000	1,628	2,100	...	1,220
Vieux Fort	121	494	233	114	677,900	1,350	660	4,650	21,800
Micoud and Praslin	17	407	160	40	1,092,000	...	...	16,375	21,700
Dennery	58	142	84	6	504,000	...	4,000	8,000	13,500
Dauphin	28	212	170	145	320,000	1,580	1,000	12,650	4,500
Total...	676	2421	1616	765	5,061,500	87,520	26,277	67,202	135,692

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COMMERCE.—In 1810, the official notice of the exports was 43,830*l.*, and of imports 193,743*l.* The total value of the exports for 1831, was 64,878*l.*, and of imports 83,003*l.*, employing a total shipping *inwards*, tons, 20,382; *outwards*, tons, 20,839. In 1832, the total value of imports was 35,958*l.*, and of exports 51,126*l.*, of which sugar constituted 38,283*l.* The greater portion of the trade is with Great Britain, but a large part of it is still carried on with France.

SHIPPING, ST. LUCIA, 1832.

Places.	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	11	2,443		11	2,518	
British Colonies.....	124	5,250		131	6,903	
United States.....	17	2,056		15	1,731	
Foreign States	230	6,194		284	7,294	
Total.....	382	15,943	2106	441	18,446	2433

The principal articles of export, from 1822 to 1831, were—

	Sugar.	Coffee.	Rum.
1822*	7,745 hhds.	357 tierces.	501 punchs.
1823	6,061,702 lbs.	362,129 lbs.	31,950 gallons.
1828	7,248 hhds.	269 tierces.	304 punchs.
1829	6,836 ...	No Return.	
1830	1,188 ...	Do.	274 ...
1831	5,776 ...	694 tierces.	
1832	4,382,233 lbs.	63,595 lbs.	5,713 gallons.

* These are the only years in the Colonial Office documents.

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The prices in 1832 were—Sugar, 15*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; Rum, 1*s.* 2*d.* per gall.; Molasses, 8*d.* per gall.; Coffee, 54*s.* per cwt.; Cocoa, 21*s.* per cwt.; Cotton, 52*s.* per cwt.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The *Weights* in use are the French pound and quintal; the pound=2 marc (Paris); the marc = 8 oz.; the oz. = 8 gros; the gros = 72 grains; the quintal = 100 French lbs.; the French lbs. = 17 oz. 9 dr. English; quintal of 100 French lbs. = 109 English.

The *Measures* are (land or square measure); the carré, containing 3 acres, 78 perches, 28 feet square (Paris measure) or 10,000 square paces; the acre = 100 square perches, or 2644 paces, 11 feet; the perch = 26 paces, 5 feet, 72 inches square, or 9 square toises; the square toise = 36 square feet, or 2 paces, 11 feet, 72 inches square; the square pace = 12 square feet, and 30 square inches; the square foot = 144 square inches; the square inch = 144 square lines, (long measure); the toise = 6 feet French; the foot = 12 inches; the inch = 12 lines; the French foot = $12\frac{2}{3}$ inches British; (cloth measure) the aune or ell = 3 feet 8 inches; and it is subdivided into one-half, one-third, one-fourth, and one-eighth; the ell = 1 yard $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches. (Wine measure) gallon = 2 pots; 1 pot = 2 pints (Paris measure), 1 pint = 2 chopines; 1 chopine = raquils; 1 raquil = 2 muces. (Dry measure) the barrel = 44 quarts, or 55 pots; the half barrel = 27 pots; the quarter ditto = $13\frac{3}{4}$ pots; the half quarter ditto $6\frac{7}{8}$ pots.

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FINANCE.—The revenue of the colony is derived from custom duties, a capitation tax, licences, fines, stamp duties, &c. The only consecutive years of revenue and expenditure before me are:

	Revenue.	Expenditure.		Revenue.	Expenditure.
1817	£ 8,305	11,188	1825	£ 10,986	11,345
1818	9,553	10,694	1826	12,978	13,096
1819	11,471	14,391	1827	No Return.	No Return.
1820	10,300	7,336	1828	11,941	10,923
1821	9,886	8,091	1829	12,647	12,063
1822	9,448	8,031	1830	12,531	12,044
1823	10,713	6,687	1831	9,542	10,143
1824	6,825	8,530			

MONIES.—Accounts are kept in pounds, shillings, and pence; but the value of the circulating medium is thus stated;—12 deniers = 1 sol; 2 sols and 6 deniers = 1 dog; 6 dogs or 15 sols = 1 bit; 8 dogs or 20 sols = 1 livre; 9 livres = 1 current dollar; 10 livres = 1 round dollar; 20 livres = one pound currency. There is no paper-money in circulation.

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COINS—VALUE IN ST. LUCIA.

	Value by Law Currency. £. s. d.	Under what Authority.
British Guinea	2 8 0	Ordinance of 26th July, 1817.
— Sovereign		Ordinance of 26th December, 1826.
Gold ... Doubloon	8 0 0	
Gold ... Louis D'Or	2 2 9	
Gold ... Joe, Portugal, found weight, best gold, or gold at 24	0 9 0	Ordinance of 26th April, 1817.
Gold ... —— —— —— 20	0 8 4½	
Silver .. British, ½ Dollar	0 2 6	
Silver .. — ⅛ —	0 1 3	Ordinance of 10th April, 1823.
Silver .. — 1-16th —	0 0 7½	
Silver .. Foreign Dollar	0 10 0	Ordinance of 26th December, 1826.
Silver .. — ½ —	0 5 0	
Silver .. — ¼ —	0 2 6	Ordinance of 26th April, 1817.
Silver .. — ⅛ —	0 1 3	
Silver .. — 1-16th —	0 0 7½	
— Cut Money 3 Mon piece	0 6 0	
— Cut Money 2 —	0 4 0	Ordinance of 27th June, 1832.
— Cut Money 1 —	0 2 0	
Nominal Coin, Current Dollar	0 9 0	
British — Penny piece	0 0 2	Ordinance of 1st June, 1818.
British — Halfpenny piece	0 0 1	
Leeward Island Dog	0 0 1½	Not known.

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GOVERNMENT, &c.—The inhabitants have their affairs administered by a governor and council, with French laws, where they are not adverse to the British. There is a public school at Castries, with twenty-two male scholars, taught on Dr. Bell's system; and there are two private schools, at which the French language only is taught.

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BOOK V.

DOMINICA.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — POPULATION — RESOURCES — COMMERCE — FINANCE — GOVERNMENT, &c. &c.

The island of Dominica is situated in 15° 25′ north, 61° 15′ west, about twenty-nine miles in length and sixteen in breadth, and containing 275 square miles, or 186,436 acres.

History.—The discovery of this island was made by Columbus, on Sunday the 3d of November, 1493, and so named by the great navigator. It was the first land seen on his second voyage, after having been twenty days at sea from the Canaries. Its right of occupancy was claimed by the three kingdoms of England, France, and Spain; but the right of possession remained undecided, and Dominica was considered a neutral island by the three crowns till the year 1759, when, by conquest, it fell under the dominion of Great Britain, and was afterwards ceded to England by the treaty of Paris, February, 1763. On the cession of the island to the English, commissioners were appointed under the great seal, and sent

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out there with authority to sell and dispose of the lands by public sale, to English subjects, in allotments 'of not more than 100 acres of such land as was cleared, and not exceeding 300 acres of woods, to any persons who should be the best bidders for the same.' These allotments were disposed of for the benefit of the crown, and were confirmed to the purchaser by grants, under the great seal of England, with conditions in each grant, that every purchaser should pay down 20 per cent. of the whole purchase-money, together with sixpence sterling per acre, for the expense of surveying the land; and that the remainder of the purchase-money should be secured by bonds, to be paid by equal instalments, in the space of five years next after the date of the grants. That each purchaser should keep on the lands, so by him purchased, one white man, or two white women, for every 100 acres of land, as it became cleared, for the purpose of cultivating the same. Or, in default thereof, or non-payment of the purchase-money, the lands were to be forfeited to his Majesty, his heirs and successors.' The commissioners were also empowered to execute leases to the French inhabitants, of such lands as were found in their possession on the surrender of the island; which lands were again leased to those inhabitants who were desirous of keeping them in possession, on consideration of their taking the oaths of allegiance to his Britannic Majesty.

These leases were executed for a term not less than seven, some fourteen, and others for forty years absolute, renewable at the time limited for the expi-

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ration of the same; with conditions in every lease, 'That the possessor, his heirs or assigns, should pay to his Majesty, his heirs or successors, the sum of two shillings sterling per annum, for every acre of land of which the lease should consist; and that they should not sell or dispose of their lands without the consent and approbation of the governor or commander in chief of that island for the time being.' The commissioners were likewise empowered to make grants, under the great seal, of lots to poor settlers, to such English subjects as should be deemed fit objects of his Majesty's bounty, in allotments of not more than thirty acres of land to any one person. With authority also, to the said commissioners, to reserve and keep such lands, in the most convenient parts of the island, as they should think proper, for fortifications, and the use of his Majesty's army and navy; together with a boundary of fifty feet from the sea-shore, round the whole island; and reserving all mines of gold and silver, which might thereafter be discovered there, for the use of his Majesty, his heirs and successors.

By these measures, 96,344 acres (half the island), were disposed of in lots of from 50 to 100 acres, which produced 312,090*l.* sterling. The prosperity of the island rapidly increased under a system of free trade; but the happiness of the inhabitants was interrupted on the capture of the island by a large French force, from Martinique, under the Marquis de Bouillé, in 1778, after a gallant resistance on the part of the British colonists, by which they secured for themselves highly honourable terms; the subse-

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quent advantages of which were, however, frustrated by the tyranny of the new French governor, the Marquis Duchilleau, whose memory is deservedly held in the deepest scorn. After five years' brutal treatment by the French, our colonists were rejoiced on the restoration of the island to England, at the peace of 1783. During the war of 1805, a devastating descent was made on the island of Dominica by a formidable French squadron; and although Roseau, the capital, was burned, the colony was preserved to Great Britain by the skill of Sir George Prevost and the gallant behaviour of the colonists. The island has ever since remained under the dominion of Great Britain.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Dominica is one of the volcanic isles of the west, with lofty rugged mountains and fertile intervening valleys, watered by about thirty fine rivers and numberless rivulets, springs, and waterfalls, which descend with great impetuosity from the hills, and, under the umbrageous canopy of lofty and magnificent forests, form the most romantic cascades. The height of the mountains has been thus noted:—Morne Diablotin, or Terre Firme, 5314 feet above the sea; Laroche, 4150; Coulisboune, 3379; Outer Cabrite, 542; Inner ditto, 430; Morne Crabier, 485; Morne Bruce, 465; Daniole, 329. The heights of the forts and batteries are,—Scots' Head, 231 feet; Melville's, 147; Magazine Bat. 320; Hospital ditto, 440; Fort Young, 440; Fort Shirley, 153; Barracks at Douglas Bay, 126; Grand Savannah, 170; Layon, 160. About six miles from Roseau, almost in the centre of the island, and on

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the top of a very high mountain, surrounded by other more lofty hills, is a large lake of fresh water, covering a space of several acres, and in some places unfathomable; it spreads into three distinct branches, and has a very extraordinary appearance.

Roseau, the capital, is situate in the parish of St. George (about seven leagues from Prince Rupert's Bay), on a point of land on the south-west side of the island, which point forms two bays, Woodbridges to the north, and Charlotteville to the south. The landscape behind the town is beautifully grand; indeed the whole prospect from the edge of Morne Bruce, a lofty table-rock occupied by the garrison, is one of the very finest in the West Indies. The valley runs up for many miles, in a gently inclined plane, between mountains of irregular heights and shapes, most of which are clothed up to their cloudy canopies with rich parterres of green coffee, which perfumes the whole atmosphere, even to some distance over the sea; the river rolls a deep and roaring stream down the middle of the vale, and is joined at the outlet of each side ravine by a mountain-torrent; whilst at the top, where the rocks converge into an acute angle, a cascade falls from the apex, in a long sheet of silvery foam. Beneath, the town presents a very different appearance from what it does at sea: the streets are long and spacious, regularly paved, and intersecting each other at right angles; there is one large square, or promenade ground; and the shingled roofs [1] of the houses, tinged with the intense

[1] Shingles are thin planks or slips of pine, imported from North America, and used universally throughout the West Indies in lieu of slates.

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blue of the heaven above them, seem like the newest slates, and remind one of that clear and distinct look which the good towns of France have when viewed from an eminence [1]. Roseau has never recovered the effects of a conflagration, ordered or caused by the Marquis Duchilleau, in 1781.

The roadstead of Roseau (it can scarcely be called a harbour) is very capacious and safe, except in the hurricane months (from the end of August to October), when the sea, from the southward, tumbles into the bay in a terrific manner, sometimes rising to an alarming height. On the last day of September, 1780, the sea suddenly rose to the height of twenty-one feet perpendicular above its usual level, destroying several houses in front of the beach, and wrecking many vessels.

The fortifications of Roseau, namely, Young's Fort, Melville's Battery, Bruce's Hill, and Fort Demoulin, are very strong and commanding positions. Prince Rupert's Bay, on the north-west of the island in St. John's parish, is three miles broad, one and a half deep, and safe and commodious enough for the whole British navy at all seasons; it is surrounded by two high mountains, called the Cabrittes, the inner of which is about 500, and the other 600 feet in perpendicular height, both out of the reach of any other elevated land. Fort Shirley lies between the two Cabrittes, with a rich plain of 100 acres in extent at its base; and in the event of war, the fortifications on these heights might be rendered as

[2] Six months in the West Indies.

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strong as Gibraltar. The grand Savannah, nine miles from Prince Rupert's Bay, and twelve from Roseau, is a fine fertile elevated plain, upwards of a mile in extent, and at a good distance from the neighbouring mountains, whose terraces jut out from their breasts; around whose declivities flourish the richest verdure, while murmuring cascades of babbling brooks burst through the luxuriant vegetation, or roll along the hilly avenues, surrounded by magnificent piles of rocks—sometimes black and bare, sometimes green, with countless traceries of lovely creepers, interspersed with ferns and palms.

Geology.—Dominica, as before observed, is volcanic; the soil in some places is a light brown-coloured mould, that appears to have been washed down from the mountains, mixed with decayed vegetable matter. In the level country, towards the sea-coast, and in many districts of the interior, it is a fine, deep, black mould, peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of the sugar-cane, coffee, cocoa, and all other articles of tropical produce. The under stratum is a yellow or brick clay, in some parts; in others, it is a stiff terrace, and frequently very stony. Large quantities of excellent freestone have been quarried in the Savanna, and at one time it formed an article of export to Guadaloupe and elsewhere.

Several of the mountains of this island are continually burning with sulphur, of which they emit vast quantities [1]. From these mountains issue various springs of mineral waters, whose virtues are extolled

[1] Attwood's Dominica.

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for the cure of many disorders, which in some places are hot enough to cook an egg in less time than boiling water. The sulphureous exhalations from these springs are very strong, often too intensely penetrating for continued respiration; while the soil, or sulphur and sand, around them in the *Souffrieres*, is too hot for the feet, and scarcely firm enough to tread upon. Owing to the dense vegetation of the island, and the general apathy of West India planters for any thing but sugar and coffee, we know nothing further of the geology of Dominica. It is stated that gold and silver mines exist, and that the latter metal was at one time to be found in abundance.

The climate may be said to resemble that of England very much, with the exception of its greater moisture. The following thermometrical register is for Roseau, the capital (latitude 15° 18′ north, longitude 61° 22′ west); but in the interior, and on the mountains, the heat is much reduced, and indeed so cold as to render woollens indispensable for body clothing and bed covering :—

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METEOROLOGICAL REGISTER FOR ELEVEN MONTHS AT ROSEAU.

MONTHS.	THERM			WINDS.	REMARKS.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January ...	83	76	70	E.N.E. and N.	Cloudy.
February...	81	74	69	E.N.E. and S.E.	Cool—showery.
March	84	77	71	N.E. to S.E.	Fair, and cloudy.
April	85	77	70	E.N.E. and S.E. and by S.	Ditto—breezes.
May	86	79	74	N.E. to S.E. and E.	Calm and clear.
June.....	88	81	75	S.E. and E. to N.E.	Ditto—sultry & rainy.
July	88	71	75	Ditto.	Ditto—cold nights.
August ...	88	80	74	S.E. and N.E.	Do. do. thund. storms.
September	87	80	74	S. and S.E.	Generally fair—rain.
October ...	86	80	75	N.E. to S.E.	Cloudy and fair—ditto.
November	85	75	69	Ditto.	Fine atmosphere.

The wet season commonly sets in about the end of August, and continues till about the beginning of January, but with frequent intervals of fine weather. The severity of the rainy season is usually in the months of September and October, when very heavy continual rain falls for days together; sometimes for two or three weeks. The island, indeed, is seldom without rain in some part or the other; and often during a promising day the traveller meets with such sudden and heavy showers, that almost in an instant wet him to the skin, in spite of either umbrella or great coat. When the rains are violent and of long continuance, they do great mischief in the island among the plantations, carrying away large tracts of land, with coffee, plantain trees, sugar-canes, and ground provisions, which are all hurried into the sea. To the towns, also, they do great damage; causing

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the rivers to overflow their banks, or breaking out in fresh places, sweeping off houses or whatever else stands in the way of these destructive torrents.

Thunder and lightning is seldom so severe in Dominica as in many other parts of the West Indies; neither are earthquakes so frequent nor so destructive. It has been asserted, that soon after the English first took possession of the island, it was split in several places by one of those awful convulsions of nature; and in particular, a large chasm was made in a mountain called Demoulins, so deep, that, although it was several times attempted, it never could be fathomed. The traces of this remarkable circumstance have, however, long since disappeared.

ANIMALS, &c.—The only native quadruped is the coney, about the size of a rabbit, with the head, ears, eyes, nose, mouth, and teeth exactly like those of a rat, but with a body, legs, and hoofs like those of a hog, and a very short tail covered with bristly hair; it springs on its hind legs like a rabbit, running with great speed when pursued, and making a noise like a guinea-pig. European domesticated animals and poultry all thrive, and there are numerous wild hogs and goats in the island. Snakes, lizards, and guanas[1] abound; frogs or toads, of an enormous size (crapaux) are very numerous, and much esteemed as an article of food; the flesh, when fricaseed, being

[1] For a description of this large lizard (from two to three feet long), vide Guiana. Mr. Attwood says they can be caught by whistling, which lulls them asleep, when a slip-knot fastened at the end of a long stick is suddenly jerked over the head, and drawn tight.

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preferred by the English as well as French to chickens, and, when made into soup, recommended for the sick, especially in consumptive cases.

The forests abound with wild pigeons, mountain ring-neck doves, and ground doves, *diablotins*, and a variety of melodious and other small birds; among which, the mountain whistler, the thrush, and wren; with the singing, whistling, and chirping of which the woods resound in a most delightful manner. The diablotin, thus called from its ugly appearance, is nearly the size of a duck, and web-footed, with a big round head and crooked bill like a hawk, and large full eyes, like an owl; the head, part of the neck, and chief feathers of the wing and tail are black, while the other parts of its body are covered with a fine milk-white down; the whole appearance being very singular. The diablotin feeds on fish, flying in great flocks to the sea-side at night-time, with hideous screams like the owl, which it resembles in its dislike to day-light. The nests are made in holes in the mountains, and the flesh is considered a delicacy, particularly when salted.

Land crabs of three varieties (white, black, and red) are most plentiful. The black and red crabs are considered excellent eating; when in season the females are full of a rich glutinous substance called the eggs, which is perfectly delicious. Epicurean planters have crab-pens (after the manner of fowl-coops) for fattening these luxuries. The white crab is said to be poisonous, from its feeding on the leaves and blossoms of the mahaut tree. The grogo worm (vide Guiana) is another Dominica delicacy. The

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entomological field is full of variety for the naturalist, among which the sawyer and blacksmith flies are very curious, as also the free-mason and *vegetable* flies; the latter, it is said, buries itself in the ground, where it dies, and from its body (which may be found perfect at the root as when alive) springs up a small plant resembling the coffee-tree, with small leaves[1].

The rivers and rivulets are plentifully stocked with excellent fish, the frey, or fry of which cover the rivers of Dominica twice or thrice every year, and is esteemed one of the greatest delicacies. The principal fish are mullets, crocroes, pike, eels, suck, and cray-fish. The shores of the island abound in excellent sea-fish.

VEGETATION.—Dominica is one of the best watered of the Caribbee islands, and, with its rich soil, may be naturally expected to have a luxuriant vegetation. Under the head of Guiana, a brief description of the forest trees has been given for the West India possessions generally, though it was originally drawn up for Dominica: it will be sufficient, therefore, to state, that the woods afford a vast supply of excellent timber, consisting of locus-wood, bully-tree, mastic, cinnamon, rose-wood, yellow-sanders, bastard-mahogany, iron wood, several species of cedar, and various other sorts useful for building houses, vessels, and canoes, for furniture, for dyeing, and other necessary purposes. The trees are of uncommon height, and by far exceed in loftiness the tallest timber in England; their tops seem to touch

[1] Attwood's Dominica.

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the very clouds, which appear as if skimming swiftly over the upper branches. Many are of enormous girth, and the seeds of different trees, being scattered by the wind, fall into the heart of the same plant, and thus become incorporated with the tree on which they are seen growing. Among other valuable trees in the woods of Dominica is the gum tree. The circumference of the body of this tree is generally very great, and its timber is, on that account, made into canoes, by digging or burning out the inside, and shaping the log into form. The gum falls from the body and branches of the tree in great quantities, in substance like white wax: it was found very serviceable to the planters of that island during the time it was in possession of the French, the gum being used instead of oil (which could not then be had,) to burn in lamps in boiling-houses, when making sugar. The Romish priests of Dominica use it likewise in their censers at funerals, and other ceremonies of their church, on account of its delightful aromatic smell when burning; it is supposed to contain virtues which might be valuable in medicines, were they better known [1].

The timber also of this tree, as well as that of several others in the woods, make good shingles for covering houses and staves for sugar and coffee casks. Several fine sloops and schooners have likewise been built here, and esteemed for their strength and durability. Cabbage-trees are in great plenty, and serviceable, as their trunks sawed, or split, make

[1] Attwood's Dominica.

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good laths, or rails, for cattle-pens, being very durable; the branches and leaves are used for thatching of houses; and the cabbage part of them is excellent eating; when boiled, it tastes much like the bottom part of an artichoke; it makes also a good pickle.

The size of the ferns (whole forests of which are found in the dips and recesses of the hills), is very remarkable; some of them rise to the height of twenty-five feet, with the branches as finely pennated, and their colour as vivid and fresh, as the dwarfish and lowly but lovely English fern.

POPULATION.—At Dominica, as elsewhere, European colonists have destroyed the natives. In the year 1692 Dominica contained 938 Caribs, and 349 French occupied the part of the coast which had been abandoned by the natives, and which they cultivated by the aid of twenty-three free mulattos, and 338 slaves. At the peace of 1763, the island contained 600 whites and 2000 blacks; and, in 1788, the population consisted of 1236 whites, 445 free negroes, and 14,967 slaves; total, 16,648.

Return of the Population, and of the Births, Marriages, and Deaths in Dominica, in 1832:—

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Parishes.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Slaves.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Roseau	121	124	621	978	339	488	1081	1,590
Parishes of St. George	60	48	196	249	1274	1349	1530	1,646
Parishes of St. Paul	23	9	129	147	816	911	968	1,067
Parishes of St. Joseph .	37	47	103	127	682	744	822	918
Parishes of St. Peter ...	43	51	119	132	431	440	593	623
Parishes of St. John	31	17	113	139	601	587	745	743
Parishes of St. Andrew	29	29	129	107	823	910	981	1,046
Parishes of St. David...	4	1	24	18	277	270	305	289
Parishes of St. Patrick	31	18	125	149	816	859	972	1,026
Parishes of St. Mark ...	8	7	130	145	458	469	596	621
Parishes of St. Luke ...	25	28	93	104	400	443	518	575
	412	379	1782	2295	6917	7470	9111	10,144

Births—Protestants, 94; Roman Catholics, 552.
Marriages—Protestants, 21; Roman Catholics, 58.
Deaths—Protestants, 87; Roman Catholics, 99[1].

Aliens and Resident Strangers.—The resident strangers are included in the population return, with the exception of the fugitive slaves, from the French islands of Martinique, Marie Galante, and Guadaloupe, whose number are supposed to amount to 600.

[1] The only means of ascertaining the births, marriages, and deaths, is by the parish registers, but of course they do not embrace all the births and deaths.

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The slave population has thus decreased :—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumission.
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1817	8624	9335					
1820	7919	8635	729	704	915	833	113
1823	7482	8232	691	673	818	709	103
1826	7362	8030	659	650	766	727	206

By the Slave Emancipation Returns, the number was, in 1832, 14,384; average value of each, from 1822 to 1830, 43*l.* 8*s.*; relative value of all, 624,715*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.*, 275,923*l.*

COMMERCE.—The trade of the settlement has undergone great changes. During the year ending 5th of January, 1788, its exports were—Sugar, 1302 cwt.; Rum, 63,392 gal.; Molasses, 16,803 gal.; Cocoa, 1194 cwt.; Coffee, 18,149 cwt.; Indigo, 11,250 lbs.; Cotton, 970,816 lbs.; Cotton, 161 cwt.; Hides, Dye woods, &c., 11,912*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.*

The principal articles of export from 1826 to 1830 were—

Years.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Rum.	Molasses.
	hds.	cwts.	pun.	pun.
1826	3178	13,350	326	740
1827	2957	1,193,359 lbs.	331	833
1828	3888	2,546,635 ...	543	1136
1829	3805	1,096,223 ...	659	786
1830	4071	1,311,473 ...	873	254

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In 1832 there was exported from Dominica—Sugar, 6,256,992 lbs. — value, 84,792*l.*; Coffee, 1,365,932 lbs.—value, 45,146*l.*; Molasses, 87,700 gal. — value, 4765*l.*; Rum, 51,100 gal. — value, 4607*l.*

In 1832 the total value of the exports was 141,306*l.* sterling, and of the imports 35,570*l.*

SHIPPING.

Places.	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain ...	14	3,613		15	3,564	
British Colonies	85	4,122		94	4,095	
United States...	5	569		7	867	
Foreign States	114	1,045		94	2,261	
Total ...	218	11,347	1,196	210	10,787	1,149

FINANCE.—The revenue is raised generally as in the other West India colonies. Its amount for 1831 was but 6300*l.*, while the expenditure was 28,765*l.* [1], the difference being made up by Parliamentary grant. The island is quite adequate to every proper civil expence; any extra military strength should, in part, be defrayed by the mother country for the benefit of all the possessions.

Dominica gross Revenue and Expenditure in pounds sterling [2]:—

[1] Of this sum 20,839*l.* was for garrisons.

[2] It will be observed that this island has its revenue assisted from the British Treasury as a military station of importance

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Years.	REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.		
	Col. Rev.	Parl. Grant.	Civil.	Military.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£
1821	6211	...	5862	636	6,498
1822	4841	...	6686	544	7,230
1823	5689	...	4922	557	5,479
1824	5932	...	4206	752	4,958
1825	8810	...	7705	778	8,483
1826	8222	...	7999	792	8,791
1827	6102	...	4488	1,214	5,702
1828	1386	23,899	8400	20,663	29,063
1829	7530	21,982	8898	20,427	29,325
1830	6327	23,762	7421	22,672	30,093
1831	6300	22,614	7926	20,839	28,765
1832					

GOVERNMENT, &c.—There is a Lieutenant-Governor, a Council of Twelve, and a Representative Legislative Assembly of nineteen members to administer the affairs of the colonists; and there are Courts of Grand Session, of Common Pleas, of Complaint, and of Petty Sessions.

The militia is an excellent body of men, little inferior to regular troops, and under the same regulations as in the other islands.

There are two public free-schools, with 162 male and fifty-eight female scholars, at an annual expence of 130*l.*, and education is making considerable progress. Fourteen places of worship exist in the colony, at an expence of 340*l.*; and if we take the small number of prisoners for 1831 (ten males and one female) as a criterion, the morals of the population are favourable. The Wesleyans have three missionaries in the island. Their numbers in 1835 were 981; marriages, 26; baptisms, 38. On the

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whole, Dominica, from its admirable situation, strong fortifications, fine climate, and fertile soil, is a very valuable colony.

A part of the crown lands admirably adapted for cultivation consists of a large run of woodland, known by the name of the Lazon Flats, extending across the island to Paguon or Commissioners' Bay, and comprising a surface of 20,000 acres, covered with the most valuable and durable timber, nearly on the same level, and watered by a great number of small streams, forming the Mahout and Lazon rivers on the west side, and the Quanary and Pagoua rivers on the east of the island. This land is stated by the intelligent Surveyor-General of the island, Mr. Finlay, to be admirably adapted to the cultivation of cocoa, coffee, and all kinds of provisions; large pastures might easily be formed for cattle. Its elevation above the level of the sea is from 800 to 1000 feet; the general temperature 68° to 75° Fahrenheit; and there are no local impediments but a want of funds, or it may be said of population, to demonstrate the advantages which would arise from Europeans colonizing this delightful West India island.

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BOOK VI.

MONTSERRAT.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY—PRODUCTIONS—POPULATION—COMMERCE—GOVERNMENT, &c.

LOCALITY.—This romantic isle, in 16° 47′ north latitude, 92° 13′ 25″ west longitude 22° south-west of Antigua, the same distance north-west of Guadaloupe, and south-east of Nevis, about twelve miles long, seven and a half broad, and thirty-four in circumference, and containing forty-seven square miles, or about 30,000 acres, was discovered and named by the sailors of Columbus *Montserrat*, a name expressive in the Spanish language of its broken and mountainous appearance. In 1632 it was first settled on by Sir Thomas Warner, under the protection of the British Government; about 1664, in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. it was taken by the French, but restored to the English at the peace of Breda, and has continued ever since under our flag.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Like many other islands in its vicinity, Montserrat most probably owes its origin

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to a volcanic eruption; like them it runs from south-east to north-west, is equally mountainous, broken, and intersected: on the north, the extremity of the mountain chain terminates in a bold head-land coast, close to which vessels may approach with safety, but there is no landing, and scarcely any anchorage along the coast; the land slopes gently down to the shore, or rather ascends from it, like the west side of the island, by a succession of round conglomerate hills, overtopping each other in pleasing undulations until they reach the mountain base.

On the south there is no approach for vessels of any description until they get to the westward; the sea for a mile or two is studded with immense rocks and shelving banks of coral, which prohibit even the approach of boats; at this point the island springs up at once, and nearly perpendicular, to the height of 1500 feet; from thence the mountains begin to accumulate, throwing out branches nearly at right angles east and west, of unequal magnitude, as if for supporters, to those originally formed; subsequently they advance and shoot up to 2500 feet, stretching across to the north extremity, and terminating in the abrupt head-land above-mentioned.

The mountains in many places are totally inaccessible in consequence of their declivities forming steep precipices of clay-stone, and being separated from each other by immense perpendicular chasms, several hundred feet deep. These gullies, and the mountains, are richly clothed to the very summit with lofty woods, and all the variety of beautiful shrubs and plants peculiar to a tropical mountain region. On

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the south-west side of the chain is a small *souffriere*, situate 1000 feet above the sea in a *dell*, formed by the approximation of three conical hills—the scenery around which is grand and beautiful.

The road from Plymouth (the capital of Montserrat,) to the *souffriere* lies at first along the margin of the sea, winding inwards by a gentle acclivity towards the mountains, and is thus beautifully described by Mr. Coleridge, whose language I quote, that it may not be thought I am prejudiced in favour of the West Indies :—

"The path was like one of my native Devonshire lanes; no primroses or violets were there, indeed, but the snowy amaryllis (pancratia Caribbea), drooped her long and delicate petals like a love-sick girl; the thrice gorgeous hibiscus was unveiling his crown and feathers of scarlet, and the light limes and darker orange trees, which formed a verdant hedge on either side, were exhaling their perfumed incense to Him who made them so beautiful and so good. A thin grey cloud obscured the sun, whilst an Atlantic breeze blew gently and freshly upon my face and open neck. The air was as cool as on a May morning in England, but so inexpressibly soft, so rare and subtle to the senses, that I may think the ether which angels breathe cannot be purer stuff than this. After this I nearly broke my neck in a dry gully, which was about as good a bridle-path as the steps to the top of St. Paul's. The gully ended in one of those green savannahs which nature has ofttimes so mysteriously cleared in the midst of the impenetrable virgin woods of tropical regions. No difference of

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soil or situation can be the cause; you may lean your back against the frontier tree of a forest which no axe or torch have ever invaded, and stretch your body on the meadow turf where scarcely a weed can be seen. There is no man to fell these trees or divert their growth; there is no hedge or wall or trench to impede their march; but God said to the forest as he said to the sea, 'Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther.' The view was beautiful: behind me the woody mountain rose into the clouds, before me it descended into a long grassy slope to the edge of the sea; on my left hand to the south, the broad and irregular eminences of Guadaloupe presented the appearance of a continent; to the north Redonda shone like an emerald in the midst of the blue waves, and beyond it stood the great pyramid of Nevis, cut off from sight at one third from its summit by an ever-resting canopy of clouds. The wind was so fresh, the air so cool, the morning dew so healthy and spangling, that I might have forgotten, but for the deep beauty that was around me, that I was still within the tropics. I seemed to have left all languor and listlessness below, and really felt the strength, the spirits, and the elasticity of youthful life in England.

"We began to descend a circuitous and over-arched path to the vale of Souffriere. The whole of the bottom of the (dell) valley is broken into vast and irregular masses of clay and lime-stone, which are scattered about in the utmost confusion, and render it a laborious task to scramble and leap from one to another. The surface of the ground is hot every-

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where, and so much so near the streams of water which ran between the fragments, that I could not keep my foot half a minute upon it. The water at its source boils up violently, and very gradually cools as it finds its way in a thousand meanders to the sea. A thick vapour slowly rises upwards till it meets the wind, which cuts it off at a straight line and drives it down to the coast. The sides of the mounds of clay are entirely crusted with pure alum, formed by the constant action of the sulphuric acid of the water and the exhalations. In the midst of all this there is a green and luxuriant vegetation of bushes and creepers; some of the flowers are marvellously beautiful, and seemed to me to be peculiar to the spot. The mountains, which rampart round this solitary glen, are of a skyey height; they appear indeed higher than they really are, for their lancet peaks are never seen except dimly and at intervals through the vast and moving masses of clouds, which are first driven from the east against the other side of the sierra, then are pressed upwards, and at last come rolling and tumbling over the summits into the vale below. The wood which clothes every inch of Chance's Mountain is soft, level, and uniform, feathering him with a grass-like plumage as an Indian warrior, whilst every branch and every leaf bends devotedly forwards to the setting sun under the unceasing breath of the Trade-wind."

No marshes exist, but a small lake is situate on the top of a high hill on the west side of the mountains, about two miles from Plymouth, which remains full the whole year.

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Plymouth, the capital, is small, but extremely well built, and the houses, constructed of a fine grey stone, have a substantial and comfortable appearance.

Geology.—The same geological features mark Montserrat, as are to be found in the neighbouring isles; many of the *rocks* might be termed vast masses of *clay* of various hues and colours. The conical hills abound with carbonate of lime, iron pyrites, and aluminous earth. The superstrative soil is in general dry, light, thin, gravelly, and thickly covered with blocks of clay and sandstone, except in the valleys where the loamy earth is deposited by rains.

Climate.—The Montpellier of the West is the term given to this Indian isle, which has long been celebrated for the peculiar elasticity of its atmosphere, the majestic grandeur of its picturesque and lofty mountains and bewitching scenery. The temperature of course varies according to locality. On the windward and leeward sides, and according to the elevation above the sea, the air is generally cool and dry; the seasons are similar to those of the neighbouring isles: it is subject to hurricanes, but their visitations are not severe or frequent.

Population.—This island, like many of our West India possessions, was at one time more densely peopled by European colonists than it is at present. In 1648 there were 1000 white families, with a militia of 360 effective Europeans. In 1791 there were about 1,300 whites, and 10,000 negroes [1].

[1] Montserrat had Irish colonists for its early settlers, and the negroes to this day have the Connaught brogue curiously

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CENSUS of MONTSERRAT in 1828.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites	139	176	315
Free-coloured	337	481	818
Slaves	2923	3324	6247
Total	3399	3981	7380

Of the population 4,600 were engaged in agriculture, 30 in manufactures, and 40 in commerce. In 1830 the births were 233, and the deaths 33.

The white population is now (exclusive of King's troops and their families,) males, 175; females, 213; free-coloured, males, 234; females, 320.

Another return gives the white and free-coloured at, males, 467; females, 677: slaves, males, 2859; females, 3350:—total males, 3326; females, 4027: Grand total, 7353. The increase and decrease of the slave population, since 1817, was—

and ludicrously engrafted on the African jargon. It is said that a Connaught man, on arriving at Montserrat, was, to his astonishment, hailed in vernacular Irish by a negro from one of the first boats that came alongside—"Thunder and turf," exclaimed Pat, "how long have you been here?"—"Three months," answered Quashy, "Three months! and so black already!! *Hanum a diaul*," says Pat, thinking Quashy a ci-devant countryman, "I'll not stay among ye;" and in a few hours the Connaught man was on his return, with a white skin, to the emerald isle.

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Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumissions.
				Males.	Females	Males.	Females	
1817	3047	3563	6610	...	...	...	...	...
1821	3032	3473	6505	329	281	318	279	40
1824	2878	3400	6278	313	289	327	286	32
1827	2867	3395	6262	314	328	265	264	44
1831	...	...	6355					

The number of slaves is 6355; average value, each, 36*l.* 17*s.*; relative value of all, 234,466*l.*:—Proportion of 20,000,000*l.*, 103,558*l.*

There are six public or free schools, with 298 males, and 390 female scholars, and five places of worship, capable of holding 1000 persons.

PRODUCTIONS, COMMERCE, &c.—The details enumerating staple products as given under the other islands, answer for Montserrat, the sugar and rum of which are much esteemed[1]. The exports of sugar in 1832, were 2,322,208 lbs., value 16,549*l.*; and of rum, 74,064 gallons, value 3307*l.*; the value of the exports, 21,517*l.*, and of the imports, 11,067*l.*; shipping, inwards, in 1830, 5824 tons; outwards, 6576.

GOVERNMENT.—The executive is embodied in the Government of Antigua, but the islanders enjoy their separate Council and House of Assembly, the former consisting of six members, and the latter of eight,

[1] Indigo was formerly raised in great quantities.

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i. e. two from each of the four districts into which the island is divided. The gross annual revenue of the isle is about 2500*l.*

There is a Wesleyan Missionary at Montserrat, and the number in society is 357; for 1835, the Baptisms 6, and Marriages 2; Leaders, 23.

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BOOK VII.

ANTIGUA.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY — HISTORY — ASPECT — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — VEGETATION, ICHTHYOLOGY, &c.

THIS fertile island is situate in latitude 17° 3′ north, longitude 62° 7′ west; 40 miles north of Guadaloupe, 25 north-east of Montserrat, 30 south of Barbuda, extending in parallel lines from Friar's Head in the east to Peyrson's Point in the west, 15¼ miles: containing, from Shirley's Heights in the south, to Boon's Point in the north, 11½ miles, being about 20 miles long, about 54 in circumference, and containing 108 square miles, equivalent to 69,277 acres.

HISTORY.—Antigua was discovered by Christopher Columbus, on his second voyage, in 1493, and named by him from a church in Seville, Santa Maria de la Antigua. Next to Barbadoes and St. Christopher's it is the oldest British colony in the Leeward Isles, having been settled by Sir Thomas Warner, with a few English families, in 1632. Antigua was granted to Lord Willoughby of Parham, by Charles II. in

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1663. In 1666 a French armament from Martinique and Guadaloupe, assisted by some Caribs, got temporary possession of the island, and plundered the planters unmercifully. By the treaty of Breda the island was in 1688 finally settled under the British dominion, and by means of free trade, and beneath the auspices of the Codrington family, rapidly prospered.

Want of space has unavoidably compelled me to omit the notice of local events in each colony; an occurrence, however, which took place in Antigua, deserves being chronicled, not less for its daring and sanguinary nature, than because it has no parallel in our colonial annals. Colonel Daniel Parke (a man whose character has been alternately condemned and praised,) succeeded, in 1706, to the Government of Antigua, vacant by the death of Sir Christopher Codrington. During four years of Colonel Parke's administration, party spirit and colonial feuds rose to the greatest height; the House of Assembly refused to be dissolved by the Governor; the colonists finally rose, *en masse*, in arms against Parke, who, with the aid of the Queen's troops, gallantly defended himself for some time, until many of the soldiers were killed, and the Governor and several of the officers wounded; the unfortunate Parke was then dragged into the streets, his clothes torn from him, and his back broken with the musket stocks, in which condition he soon expired.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Antigua is nearly of an oval shape, with an extremely irregular coast, indented with numerous bays, and almost surrounded by

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islets, rocks, and shoals, which render the approach to it very dangerous on every side except to the south-west. More than one-half of the island on the north-east is low, in some places rather marshy, and interspersed with gentle acclivities and swelling eminences, which, if less denuded of trees, would present the beautiful hill and dale scenery of England. Towards the south and south-west, the elevation of the land gradually increases, forming round backed hills of a moderate height, generally running east and west, intersected by cultivated valleys, and partially clothed with small trees and brushwood. The greatest elevation (computed at 1210 feet) is on the Sheckerley range of mountains, called Boggies Hill, about six miles to the west of Monk's Hill. The highest district may be said to take its rise from Falmouth, and to continue with various elevations to Five Island Harbour. The height to the north-east and south-west is not considerable, but on the latter part the hills are occasionally bold and precipitous, forming numerous ravines and valleys, their summits being extremely irregular, sometimes round, at other times conical, and occasionally tabular; the rest of the island may, as a general feature, be said to consist of broad slopes, and repeatedly occurring undulations.

No island in the West Indies can boast of so many excellent bays and harbours, but they are all, except those of St. John, English Harbour, and Falmouth, (which require pilots) difficult of access.

The other bays and harbours are St. Freeman's (at the entrance of English Harbour,) Rendezvous Bay,

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Morris Bay, Five Island Harbour, Lydesenfis Bay, Parham, Nonsuch, and Willoughby harbours, and Indian Creek, contiguous to Freeman's Bay.

St. John's, the capital, is irregularly laid out, pretty large, and built on the north-west side of the island, at the head of a large but not deep harbour, the north side of which is partly formed by an elevated rock, called *Rat Island*[1], about midway up the harbour, and connected with the main land by a causeway, which is submerged at high water. From St. John's to the extreme north and north-east of the island, the land is generally very low, interspersed with numerous ponds and marshy hollows; but, with these exceptions, the surface of the whole is sufficiently varied to prevent the accumulation and stagnation of water on its surface.

Mr. Coleridge thus beautifully describes his feelings on entering the harbour of the capital of Antigua:—

"This is, without exception, the prettiest little harbour I ever saw. The extreme neatness of the docks, the busy village which has grown up in their vicinity, the range of hills of various shapes and colours, which encircle the inland sides, and the rocky ridge which frowns over the mouth, with its union, and cannons, and ramparts, present such a combination of tropical beauty, and English style and spirit, as I never saw elsewhere in the West Indies.

"I was very pleasantly surprised with the look of

[1] On this isle a regiment was stationed during the war, but the buildings are now solely used as a Colonial hospital.

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the country. Antigua is so generally spoken of as a dry and adust place, where the earth refuses to yield water for the use of man, that I received more than ordinary pleasure in gazing on the gentle wooded hills and green meadow vales which decorate the interior of the island. Antigua on a larger scale is formed like Anguilla, that is, without any central eminences, but for the most part ramparted around by very magnificent cliffs, which slope inwards in gradual declivities. From some of these rocks, especially near the parsonage of St. Philip's parish, one of the finest panoramic views in the world may be obtained. The whole island, which is of a rough circular figure, lies in sight; the grand fortifications on the Ridge and Monk's Hill silently menace the subject fields; St. John's rises distinctly with its church on the north-western horizon, whilst the woods which cover the sides and crest the summit of Fig-tree Hill just break the continuity of sea on the south-west. The heart of the island is verdant, with an abundant pasturage or grassy down, and the numerous houses of the planters, embosomed in trees, have more of the appearance of country mansions in England than almost any other in the West Indies. The shores are indented in every direction with creeks and bays and coves, some of them running into the centre of the plantations like canals, some swelling into estuaries, and others forming spacious harbours. Beyond these, an infinite variety of islands and islets stud the bosom of the blue sea, and stand out like so many advanced posts of defence against the invading waves. They are of all shapes

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and sizes, and are given up to the rearing of provisions and the maintenance of a great number of cattle. From the same hill, when the western sky is clear, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Nevis, and St. Kitts may all be distinguished by the naked eye.

"The tortuous descent of Fig-tree Hill, though not so rich and imposing as the mountains and valleys of Trinidad, is yet a landscape so exquisitely beautiful, that no painter or poet, who had once seen it, could ever forget the sight. A prodigious number of forest trees grow on the tops and declivities of the cliffs, and luxuriant festoons and knots and nets of evergreen creepers connect them all together in one great tracery of leaves and branches. The wild pine sparkled on the large limbs of the wayside trees: the dagger-like Spanish needle (*bidens pilosa*), the quilled pimploe (*cactus tuna*), and the maypole aloe (*agave Americana*), shooting upwards to twenty feet, with its yellow flowering crown on high, formed an impenetrable mass of vegetation around the road, and seemed fixed on purpose there to defend the matchless purple-wreaths of lilac jessamines, which softened the dark foliage amongst which they hung, from being plucked by the hand of the admiring traveller. Meanwhile a vigorous song of birds arose, and made the silent defile ring with the clear morning sound of European warblers, in the midst of which, and ever and anon, some unseen single creature uttered a long-drawn quivering note, which struck upon my ear with the richness and the melancholy of a human voice. Many persons have remarked the extraordinary tones of this bird, but I

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could not learn any name for it. It is the love-lorn nightingale of a silent tropic noon."

Monk's Hill (a military station) gradually rises from the bottom of Falmouth Bay, and, as it ascends, becomes precipitous till surmounted by Great George Fort, at the height of 625 feet, commanding to the north and north-east an extensive view of a highly cultivated country, overlooking the bay below the peninsula of Middle Ground, English Harbour, and the Ridge, whilst in the distant horizon are to be seen Guadaloupe, Montserrat, and in clear weather Nevis and St. Christopher's.

Great George Fort at Monk's Hill extends over about ten acres of ground. It was constructed by the colony, at a very great expense, as a place of refuge for the wives and children of the inhabitants, in the event either of insurrection or foreign invasion: permission being given to them, under certain restrictions, to build houses for the reception of their families. These houses have fallen in ruins. The fortress is still supported by the colony, and, from its commanding situation, has very properly been selected as a signal station, displaying to most parts of the island information of the arrival of mails from *England*, which is first communicated by signal from *Rat Island*, in the harbour of *St. John*.

From this elevated point, on one side, an extensive country of plantations, stretching to the extreme verge of the opposite shores of the island, forms a most singular and pleasing contrast with the scene which the different eminences, and the fortifications and harbours already noticed, present on the other.

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The town, or rather village of Falmouth, lies immediately under the brow of this hill to the southward.

English Harbour is a very complete dock-yard, on a small scale, surrounded by hills, on one of which at the north-east the naval hospital is situate. With the exception of a few scanty rivulets amongst the hills, the whole island is destitute of running water, and the wells, heretofore dry, have proved brackish; ponds and tanks are, therefore, the main-stay of the planters. The plan of boring for water should be adopted.

GEOLOGY.—The soil of the highlands is of a red clay, argillaceous, with a substratum of marl; in the low lands it is a rich dark mould, on a substratum of clay. The most superficial strata occupy the north and east parts, and are of a calcareous formation, and the outline of the district is in round hills and knolls, similar to those found in the chalk districts of England. Through the stratum of marl, which appears on the surface, run layers and irregular masses of limestone, containing a variety of fossil shells, nodules of calcareous spar, cellular and crystallized quartz, chalcedony, agate, and coral-lines, both in a calcareous and silicious state. A calcareous sandstone is also found in this marl formation, composed of silicious particles, carbonate of lime, and a little oxyde of iron. A breccia also frequently appears, consisting of an agglutination of fragments of different coloured porphyries. No bones of the larger animals have been found in this formation. The coarse chert, or flint, is seen in irregular masses on the surface,

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breaking into sharp angular blocks, and containing a great quantity of petrified wood and casts of shells. Petrified wood is also found on the surface of the conglomerate and marl formations, often so delicate and beautiful, that the colour of the wood and the distinctive form of its fibre are perfectly preserved. Agate, cornelian, and chalcedony, are frequently seen intermingled in the same specimen. Nitrate of potass, like a hoar frost, covers the flat oozy shore which bounds the bay of Falmouth on the north and east.

Dr. Nugent divides the island into four distinct classifications. The range of mountains, or rather highlands, in the south-west quarter, consisting of unstratified conglomerate, composed of masses of trap, breccia, wacké, porphyry, greenstone, &c. which are embedded in a clay matrix with brownish decomposing chlorite baldagé. Parallel with this range inland, a different formation appears, consisting of a claystone conglomerate, containing silicified wood, coralline chert, agate, amygdaloid, porphyry, slate, bloodstone, &c. in a matrix of an intense green colour. The north and east districts have a calcareous formation subordinate to the lowest beds, of which, and nearly in the centre of the island, are extensive irregular masses of coarse chert, containing a prodigious quantity of casts of shells.

On a general view, the geological formation of the island may be said to consist of marl, conglomerate chert, and trap. Marl forms the greater part, and extends over the whole north and north-east part; trap, the south-west; conglomerate, an intervening

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section, extending inland from St. John's Harbour, and chert, embracing a section with the latter segment. The fossils and petrified woods found in Antigua, when polished, are exquisitely beautiful.

CLIMATE.—Owing to the elevation of the land, and the absence of dense and lofty woods, visible in Jamaica, Dominica, &c., the climate of Antigua is dry, and the rainy season so uncertain, that sometimes a great part of the hurricane season passes away without rain. The dry season generally commences in January, continuing to April or May, and from June to the end of the year the rains are usually abundant. Hurricanes seldom occur, and when they do, are less devastating than in some of the other islands. The most severe hurricanes were those of 1681, 1707, 1740, 1772, 1780, and 1792. Slight shocks of earthquakes are not unfrequent, but latterly they have seldom occasioned any damage. A dreadful earthquake occurred in 1689, and committed great destruction in Antigua. Owing to the great dryness of the climate, the temperature is less subject to the variations observed in the other islands; heavy dews are not often experienced, and the thermometer seldom ranges more than 4° in the twenty-four hours. On the ridges, or hills, the temperature is considerably modified by the sea-breezes, or trade winds, which occasionally shift a few points to the north and south.

The following table shows the medium temperature and fall of rain for 1826 (the latest year in my possession):—

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	Medium Temperature.	Rain.
January	78.1	2.99
February	77.2	2.44
March	76.9	1.19
April	78.2	1.26
May	80.7	5.11
June	80.8	4.19
July	81.8	1.8
August	82.1	1.69
September	82.4	5.7
October	81.4	2.36
November	78.4	4.5
December	78.8	2.98

Showing an annual medium of temperature of 79.68, and a total annual fall of rain of 35.58.

Vegetable Kingdom.—Antigua is most bountifully supplied with a variety of edible vegetables and fruit; the yam, sweet potato, cassave, cabbage, turnips, carrots, radishes, eddoes, squash pumpkin, cucumber, plantain, ochro (spinage), &c. are among the former; and among the latter are the orange, mango, guana, shaddock, sweet lemon, pine apple, sapadillo, pomegranate, grenadilla, plum, grape, almond, alligator (and other) pears, melon, citron, banana, cashew, dildoe, redcaps, soursop, bread, and jackfruits, &c.

Sugar is the staple of the island, but other productions are now being attended to. Among the medicinal plants, spices, and trees, are a species of absinthium, aloe perfoliata, amomum zinziber, anisum vulgare, dolichas pruriens, datura stramonium, fæniculum dulce, glycirrhiza glabra, guaicum officinale, several species of menthæ, rosmarinus officinalis,

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quassia excelsa, and ricinus communis. Guinea grass is extensively cultivated.

The coast, bays, and harbours, are plentifully supplied with excellent fish; among the most numerous are the herring, mackarel, baracouta (of great size), glouper (sometimes fifty pounds), toad (poisonous), mauget, hedgehog, hogfish (poisonous), jew-fish (large and dear), snapper, flatfork, squerrel, chubb, snitt, flounder, mullet, parrot (coloured like the bird), eel (like a serpent); silver, luck, and ink (shedding ink when caught) fishes—abacore (a large size), shark (plentiful), doctor (has a lance in the tail), sprat (two varieties, one poisonous), king, fry, whiting (poisonous), wattee, hind, comaree, convalby, old wife, queen mullet, cobbler, ten-pounder, garr, bolalwe, reay, shew, and crawfish cat (a curious fish with five prongs, which if left on the skin sucks blood); in fine

> ——————— 'Each creek and bay,
> With fry innumerable swarm, and shoals
> Of fish, that with their fins and shining scales
> Glide under the green wave;
> . . . part single, or with mate
> Graze the sea-weed, their pasture, and through groves
> Of coral stray; or sporting, with quick glance
> Show to the sun their wav'd coats dropp'd with gold.'

The king fish taken young is termed *coramour*, and, when kept in a fish pond or crawl for some time, is esteemed a great delicacy, as is also the mud fish (resembling tench) commonly found in the water courses. The mangrove oysters are considered a tantalizing dainty, and the trunk lobsters, cockles, &c. are excellent.

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CHAPTER II.

POPULATION BY CLASSES—BIRTHS, BAPTISMS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS—VALUE OF SLAVES—STAPLE PRODUCTS—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS — SHIPPING, &c. — GOVERNMENT—RELIGION—SCHOOLS—FINANCES, &c.

POPULATION.—According to the Abbé Raynal, the white inhabitants of Antigua, in 1741, amounted to 3538, and the negroes to 27,416. In 1774 the whites were 1590, and the negroes 37,808. Colquhoun computed the whites in 1815 at 3200, the free people of colour 1200, and the slaves at 36,000. In 1821 the male slaves were 14,531; females, 16,533; total, 31,064. The number of white men liable to serve in the militia, from fourteen to fifty-nine years old, 877; of white females and children, 840; of white males, under fourteen years, 235; number of coloured and black men, liable to militia service, between fourteen and fifty-nine years, were 881; of coloured and black females, including children, 2346; ditto males, under fourteen years, 622. Discharged and pensioned soldiers, 9; of African apprentices, 278; of white men, exempt from militia duty over sixty years old, 46. Grand total, 6,162.

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Census of Antigua, taken in 1821 (similar numbers are given for 1828) :—

Parishes.	Area in Square Miles.	Whites.			Coloured Free Population.			Grand Total Population.
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
St. John...	28	644	563	1207	1210	1623	2833	12,284
St. Philip.	17	116	46	162	62	99	161	4,323
St. George	10	56	35	91	24	44	68	3,580
St. Mary...	22	81	43	124	65	94	159	4,432
St. Peter...	11¼	100	37	137	53	65	118	4,666
St. Paul ...	18¾	142	117	259	292	435	727	4,051
Total...	107	1139	841	1980	1706	2370	4066	33,336

The slave population from 1817 to 1831 has been :—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1817	15,053	17,216	32,269	—	—	—	—	—
1821	14,454	16,531	30,985	1193	1146	1497	1388	208
1824	14,225	16,089	30,314	1262	1230	1218	1216	218
1827	14,066	15,773	29,839	1109	1194	1146	1131	228
1831	13,992	15,545	29,537	—	—	—	—	314

By the Slave Emancipation Act Returns, the number of slaves are 29,537; average value of each, from 1822 to 1830, 32*l.* 12*s.*; relative value of all,

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964,198*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.* to which the colony is entitled, 425,866*l.*

ANTIGUA REGISTER.

Parishes.	Baptisms.			Marriages.			Burials.		
	White.	Free.	Slaves.	White.	Free.	Slaves.	White.	Free.	Slaves.
St. John's	16	68	107	11	3	10	29	49	29
St. Philip's ...	6	15	65	2	1	5	8	5	6
St. George's ...	3	3	55	2	3	7	2	1	19
St. Mary's	7	5	27	3	1	—	—	5	4
St. Paul's	12	41	52	3	—	—	19	13	12
St. Peter's	9	8	79	—	1	1	4	1	23

Produce, Commerce, Revenue, &c.—The variation of seasons, as regards drought or rain, causes great fluctuation in the production of sugar, &c. in Antigua, and consequently in the commerce of the island. The sugar cane was introduced into Antigua by Colonel Codrington, who settled in the island from Barbadoes in 1674, and employed his knowledge in the cultivation of the cane with such success, that others, animated by his example, and assisted by his advice, engaged in the same pursuits. At first, indeed, the produce was black, harsh, and coarse, and on this account it was rejected in England: and when it was sold in Holland and the Hans towns, it did not bring so high a price as that of the other colonies; but at length the planters triumphed over these obstacles, and brought sugar to the market equal in value and quality to that of any of the

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islands. The exports of the island in 1787 were 284,526 cwt. of sugar; 716,546 gallons of rum; 5910 gallons of molasses; 160,510 lbs. of cotton; value of dyeing woods, 4146*l.*; miscellaneous, 48,006*l.*; total value, 592,596*l.*

The principal Exports from 1822 to 1831 were :—

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.
	hds.	punch.	punch.
1822	6,603	2707	680
1823	10,301	2518	5304
1824	16,877	2708	7350
1825	13,534	2591	7358
1826	17,085	2966	8747
1827	5,965	989	2990
1828	14,150	2126	7976
1829	12,849	3024	6338
1830	12,025	2943	4259
1831	13,148	2489	7912

The value of the imports for the same year was 148,830*l.*

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Quantity and Value of various Articles of Merchandize Exported from Antigua, during the year 1832:—

Description of Goods.		Quantity.	Value in Sterling Money.
			£.
Arrow Root	lbs.	8,354	342
Coffee, Colonial	—	31,284	781
Copper, Old	—	25,066	999
Corn, viz. Wheat Flour	Barrels	7	14
Dye and Hardwoods, Colonial	Tons	6	20
Fruit	Value	—	2
Hides	Number	312	107
Iron and Steel Manufactures, British	Value	—	25
Lime Juice	Gallons	90	3
Linens entered by the Yard, British	Yards	140	4
Molasses	Gallons	678,500	26,652
Spirits, Rum	—	115,420	7,023
— Shrub	—	390	32
Succades	Value	—	8
Sugar	lbs.	17,165,610	126,403
Tobacco	—	400	4
Tortoiseshell	—	56	84
Wine of all sorts	Gallons	265	77
Wood	Value	—	5
Miscellaneous Articles	—	—	6,659
Total		—	169,244

SHIPPING OF ANTIGUA IN 1832.

Places.	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	45	10,239		40	8,989	
British Colonies	156	9,504		204	12,369	
United States	45	5,937		16	2,308	
Foreign States	112	2,312		113	4,153	
Total	358	27,992	2055	373	27,819	2082

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The Antigua gross Revenue and Expenditure in pounds sterling, from 1821 to 1831, was—

Years.	REVENUE.	EXPENDITURE.		
		Civil.	Military.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
1821	12,382	11,551	1224	12,795
1822	7,634	9,565	1054	10,619
1823	9,099	11,395	1287	12,682
1824	12,702	11,154	2099	13,253
1825	14,591	10,782	2724	13,506
1826	16,024	12,093	2557	14,650
1827	No return.			
1828	19,429	18,689	1839	20,528
1829	14,391	14,507	1618	16,125
1830	14,357	12,031	1538	13,569
1831	16,007	13,010	2697	15,708

Form of Government.—Antigua is legislated for by a Governor, Legislative Council, and House of Assembly, the latter consisting of a Speaker and twenty-five members, representing the capital town (St. John's) and twelve divisions, or six parishes, into which the island is divided. The Governor of Antigua is also Governor and Commander-in-Chief over Montserrat, Barbuda[1], St. Christopher, Nevis,

[1] Barbuda.—This island, the property of the Codrington family, is situated thirty-six miles north of Antigua, about twenty miles broad, with 1500 inhabitants; the interior is level, the soil fertile, and the air of great purity. It was first settled by a party of colonists from St. Kitt's under Sir Thomas Warner, whom the Caribs at first compelled to retreat, but the English finally returned and quickly began cultivation. The chief trade of the colonists consists in raising cattle, swine, poultry, horses, and mules, for sale in the neighbouring islands. There is a good roadstead, but the coast is dangerous.

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Anguilla, the Virgin Islands, and Dominica; he however, generally remains stationary at Antigua. The Governor is Chancellor of each island by virtue of his office, but commonly holds the court in Antigua. In hearing causes from the other islands he acts alone, but in cases which arise in Antigua he is assisted by a Council; and by an act of the Assembly of this island, the President and a certain number of the Council may determine chancery causes during the absence of the Governor. The other Courts of this island are a Court of King's Bench, a Court of Common Pleas, and a Court of Exchequer.

The Legislature of Antigua was the first which prescribed the example of an amelioration of the criminal law with regard to negro slaves, by affording the accused party the benefit of trial by jury, and allowing, in the case of capital convictions, *four days* to elapse between the time of sentence and the execution. This Colonial Assembly has, in other instances, displayed a proper sense of its own dignity. The West India islands, belonging to Great Britain, have no coin of their own; what is in circulation being all foreign. In the beginning of the last century the mother country thought it necessary to settle the value of it, but as the arrangement she made was considered to be contrary to the interests of the colonists, they fixed it at a higher value. But notwithstanding this the lawyers agreed, that if the event should take place, they would never grant their assistance to any one who should refuse to accept the coin at the price fixed by the Assembly.

The militia consists of a brigade of artillery, a

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squadron of light dragoons, and a windward and leeward regiment of infantry.

The crown lands in Antigua and Montserrat are 458 acres, in the parish of St. Paul, Falmouth, and the immediate vicinity of his Majesty's dock-yard, English Harbour, employed as, and under, batteries, garrison buildings, and ordnance quarters and stores; 171 acres east, north, and west of English harbour, and contiguous, as a naval yard department, and ten acres as a naval hospital, very near the latter. In Montserrat there are two acres, under a few small batteries on the sea-coast.

There are seven public or free schools in the island, providing for 274 male and 201 female scholars; the number of places of worship are twenty-two, capable of containing 3618 persons, and the expense of maintaining the church establishment is 5560*l.* per annum.

There is a very general countenance of religious instructors and instruction in most of the islands, and in Antigua particularly.

SCHOOLS AND CHURCHES.—There are Sunday and infant day schools, carried on by the Church of England, the Moravians, and the Methodists. The majority of the clergy are intent on the great duties of their calling; of the missionaries too much can scarcely be said. A too rigid adherence to high church principles has done much injury to the establishment, and exhibited the inadequacy of the episcopal system to the religious requirements of the slave population. The abandonment of the West Indies by the Church Missionary Society has been of

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essential disservice; still there is much doing by exemplary and devoted men in the establishment, by going about on the estates, and preaching in the negro houses in a truly missionary spirit. The appointment of assistants or helpers (called by the negroes "Godfathers"), to exercise a certain surveillance over their flocks on the plantation, has tended very much to give effect to their ministrations. By these and other means the character of the negroes has been much improved, and their outward attention of religion greatly increased: add to this, the refusal of all the ministers and missionaries to bury any whose names are not inserted as members in their books, produces an anxiety, on this if on no other account, to be enrolled among the professors of religion. The Moravians have twenty-two missionaries at Antigua. Their stations at St. John's, Grace Hill, and Grace Bay, were established in 1756; at Newfield in 1817; and at Cedar Hall in 1821. The Wesleyans have five missionaries; the number of members in society is 2740, and the state of their schools is thus shown:—

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WESLEYAN MISSION ANTIGUA SCHOOLS IN 1835.

Places.	No. of Sunday Scholars.	No. of Infant Scholars.	Total.
SUNDAY SCHOOLS.			
Willoughby Bay	611	127	738
Parham	493	—	493
Zion Hill	173	74	247
Bolands	89	97	186
Thibon's Creek	30	—	30
Ebenezer Chapel	344	128	472
Point Chapel	43	—	43
			2209
INFANT SCHOOLS.			
Bethesda	—	102	—
Lyons	—	54	—
Lower Walronds	—	14	—
Sanderoon's	—	83	—
Sir Geo. Thomas's	—	40	—
Gunthorpe's	—	38	—
Wen's	—	31	—
Vernon's	—	78	—
		440	
Adult Night Schools	1100	1100	1540
		1540	3749

'From the number, 3749, which is given in the above table as the sum total of our scholars in the various schools, about 1260 should be deducted for those who attend more than one of the above schools, and have their name enrolled on two or three papers. This will leave a total number of persons educated in our different schools amounting to 2489.'

FEES TO THE CLERGY.—The vestry assembles, when the acting churchwarden lays before them an estimate of the ways and means for the year. The number of acres and of slaves in the parish show the amount of the tax on each. This amount, with all

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items, is settled by the majority; the churchwarden delivers the accounts, and collects the money. One of the principal disbursements is the minister's salary; about 200*l.* sterling is provided by an act of the island, and it is customary for the vestry to make a voluntary addition to it, generally from 60*l.* to 100*l.* per annum. This, with a parsonage house, and sometimes a horse, is sufficient to make a clergyman comfortable; and the minister is under the necessity of avoiding conduct which would be offensive to his parishioners, while a portion of his income depends on the goodwill of his flock. The salary of the clerk is also on a liberal scale, being from 75*l.* to 120*l.* per annum; he acts as vestry clerk in keeping the accounts, and collecting the taxes. The surplice fees are liberal; three guineas is a common fee to a clergyman, and not unfrequently one guinea and a half, to the clerk, as a wedding fee. This, with 3*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.* to the governor for a licence (few white people being married by banns) makes matrimony an expensive business.

I cannot pass to the next British island (in a geographical position) without noticing an act that reflects much honour on the colonists of Antigua, who have ever been distinguished for their desire to mitigate the horrors of slavery, and to inculcate morality and religion among their dependents. An act passed the Island Assembly 13th February, 1834, and was ratified by the council two days after, decreeing the emancipation of every slave in the island on the 1st of August, 1834, unqualified from all the provisions of the act of the British Parliament with

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reference to apprenticeship. The bill provided for locating, in their present domiciles, all the slaves residing upon sugar plantations for the space of one year, and also for settlement in the parishes in which their present residences are situated, for the same period. In case of insubordination or improper conduct, two magistrates to have the power of removing them. Food and clothing, as now provided by existing laws, to be supplied to the old, infirm, and young for one year, at the proprietor's expence, and reasonable wages allowed to all the able and competent labourers. The laws of the island relative to the slaves to be abrogated, and the statute law of England to take their place.

In the words of this most righteous Act—'*From and after the* 1*st of August*, 1834, *slavery shall be and is hereby utterly and for ever abolished and declared unlawful within this colony and its dependencies !*'

This prompt measure of the Antiguans was not met in a corresponding spirit at home, because the destructive four and a half per cent. duties levied on all their produce exported[1] (and which his present Majesty has so nobly resigned) was combined by the colonial legislature in the slavery emancipation act.

[1] These duties are levied in Barbadoes, Antigua, Nevis, St. Kitt's, Montserrat, and Tortola; they have amounted, since the period when they were first levied, to *seven millions sterling!* The larger islands and Guiana have successfully opposed the infliction of so heavy a tax.

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BOOK VIII.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S, OR ST. KITT'S, NEVIS, AND ANGUILLA.

CHAPTER I.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

LOCALITY — PHYSICAL ASPECT — MOUNTAINS — RIVERS — GEOLOGY — CLIMATE — POPULATION.

In 17° 18′ north latitude, 62° 40′ west longitude, seventy-two miles in circumference, and containing sixty-eight square miles, is situate St. Kitt's, or St. Christopher's, called by the Caribs *Licmuiga*, or the fertile isle, and in shape somewhat like Italy—as an outstretched leg.

History. — This singular-looking but beautiful spot was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and, as stated by some, received its name from the great navigator himself[1], by reason of his being so pleased

[1] This island is not only honoured by being named after Columbus, but it is said to have given birth to Christophe, first a slave, afterwards a waiter in an hotel and on board a

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with its fertile appearance; others say its name is derived from a part of Mount Misery bearing a resemblance to the statues common at that period on church porches, of St. Christopher carrying our Saviour on his shoulders. The island was then densely peopled by Caribs, who remained for some time after its discovery in possession of their native home, subject to the occasional visits of the Spaniards for water, with whom they are stated to have been on terms of friendship [1]—a very doubtful fact, unless the Spaniards did not require the land or persons of the Caribs.

In 1623, Warner (afterwards Sir Thomas) settled on the island, with his son and fourteen Londoners, and found three Frenchmen residing in tranquillity with the natives. Warner returned to England for more recruits, and, on his return in 1625, landed the same day with M. D'Enambuc, who had arrived from France with a party of colonists. The Caribs took alarm, made war on the European invaders, were discomfited with the loss of 2000 in killed and wounded, leaving 100 foes dead from their poisoned arrows. The English and French agreed to divide the island between them, and articles of partition were signed 13th of May, 1627. The island was divided into upper and lower portions—the former

privateer, and finally Emperor of Haiti. According, however, to one account, this remarkable man was born in the island of Grenada, in 1769, and was a slave at St. Domingo so late as 1791.

[1] So stated by the intelligent and eloquent author of the West India Sketch Book.

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and most extensive called Capisterre, belonging to the French; and the lower called Basseterre, alone inhabited by the English.

Don Frederick de Toledo, a Spaniard, proceeding to the Havannah with fifteen frigates and twenty-four ships of burthen, attacked the colonists in 1629, burned and plundered in every direction, and carried off 600 Englishmen as prisoners; but the flow of emigration was so great to the West Indies at this period, that in the following year the number of English settlers amounted to 6000. Jealousies, bickerings, and at length hostilities, began between the English and French settlers, which were stopped by the latter compelling the former to return within their line of demarcation; but although it was agreed that if France and England went to war, the colonists of St. Christopher's should remain neutral, the resolution was broken on the commencement of hostilities in Europe; and a terrible battle, which lasted several days, ended in favour of the French colonists, who assumed the mastery of the whole island, and gallantly defended their acquisition, in the following year, against a large English force, sent to recover possession; in the contest for which, Lord Belamont and Colonel Lauvreu were slain, all their officers wounded, eight colours lost, 700 British troops killed and drowned, and many taken prisoners. At the peace of Breda, the English colonists were restored to their portion of the island, and for twenty years the French and English lived in peace; but, in 1689, the former entered the territory of the latter, put to death all who opposed, and by the aid of fire and

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sword, forced the English to fly from the colony. In the following year, General Codrington and Sir F. Thornhill, with a large force from Barbadoes, drove the French from St. Christopher's; and for several years the English, in turn, remained masters of the whole island; but by the treaty of Ryswick, restitution was made to the French of the part they had formerly possessed. This they retained until 1702, when the island was captured by the English, and by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, entirely ceded to the British crown. Most of the French removed to St. Domingo; and the sale of the crown lands produced a large sum for government, of which 40,000*l.* was voted as a marriage portion for the daughter of George II. St. Kitt's rapidly increased in prosperity, notwithstanding the effects of a terrific hurricane in 1722, which destroyed 500,000*l.* worth of property. In 1782, the Marquis De Bouillé, with 8000 troops, and supported by the Count de Grasse with twenty-nine sail of the line, captured the island ere Sir S. Hood, with twenty-two sail of the line, could effect any thing for its relief. The treaty of peace signed at Versailles in the following year restored St. Christopher's to Great Britain, in whose possession it has since remained [1].

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—St. Kitt's presents to the eye an irregular, oblong figure, through the centre of which runs a regular series of mountains from north

[1] In 1805, a large French force landed at Basseterre without opposition, levied 18,000*l.* as contribution, and sailed away with six merchant ships which they found at anchor in the bay, and burned as soon as they got out to sea.

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to south; in the midst of which stands Mount Misery, 3711 feet in perpendicular height, and, although evidently a volcanic production, clothed with the finest wood and pasture, almost to the very summit. From the foot of Mount Misery and the adjoining hills, the country has a uniform sloping direction, stretching from a centre to a circumference, bounded by the coast, every inch of which is in a high state of cultivation. There is no plain in the island deserving the name of a swamp, and the great declination of the land towards the sea carries off any superabundant moisture. On the west side, Brimstone Hill rises gradually from the sea to a height of 750 feet; its eastern prospect, for two-thirds of its altitude, has a somewhat conical appearance, and then suddenly projects into two peaks; the northern one being called Fort George—the southern Fort Charlotte, or Monkey Hill. At the foot, and between these prominences, is a plain of quadrangular shape, compassing about an acre of land, having on its eastern skirts the barracks, denominated Bedlam, for 220 men. The fortifications are very strong, and there is a tank within the ramparts capable of containing 90,000 gallons of water. Monkey Hill is the southern termination of a range of great mountains, which increase in height towards the north, and thicken together in enormous masses in the centre of the island. The apex of this rude pyramid is the awful crag of Mount Misery, which is bare, black, and generally visible whilst the under parts of the mountain are enveloped in clouds. It may, indeed, be termed a tremendous precipice, of

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3000 feet, shooting slantingly forward over the mouth of a volcanic chasm, like a vast aërial peninsula. The vale of Basseterre is exquisitely beautiful, when viewed from the hills of Mary Cayone. It has been said that there is no place on earth which can surpass the richness and cultivated beauty of this lovely scene. Nothing can be better disposed for completing the effect than the plantations are: the tall and moving windmills, the houses of the proprietors, the works and palm-thatched cottages of the negroes, embosomed in plantain groves, present the appearance, as indeed they are the substance, of so many country villages in England. On one side is Basseterre, with the ships; on the other, the ocean to windward, the mountains behind; in front, the broken peninsular termination of the island to the south, the salt lakes gleaming between the opening of the rocks, and Nevis towering majestically over all.

Rivers.—There are four rivers in the isle, two at Oldroad, in the parish of St. Thomas, middle island; another at the small village of St. Mary's (Cayone); and the fourth (Pelhans) at Palmetto Point, Trinity Parish. In rainy weather, few plantations are without their running streams. In the lowlands, springs are plentiful, but some of their waters unfit for drinking, owing to strong saline impregnations. The water in common use (as is the case in most of our West India possessions) is rain-water, collected from the houses, preserved in large tanks, and of excellent quality.

Geology.—This isle is unquestionably of igneous

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origin; immense layers of volcanic ashes are found in every parish, and the soil is chiefly of a dark grey loam, extremely porous. At Sandy Point, St. Ann's parish, there are alternate layers of this loam and ashes, to the depth of seventy-five feet, on a substratum of gravel. This compost is considered the best in the West Indies for the cultivation of sugar. Clay is found in considerable quantities in the high or mountain land, while the low lands are entirely deficient of it. Among the mountains in the centre of the island, there is one which contains mines of sulphur; and there is another, not far distant from Fort Charles, in which there is said to be a mine of silver. In the north-east there are very fine salt ponds, which produce most excellent salt; one of these is more than 100 acres in extent, surrounded with several lesser ponds. The structure of Brimstone Hill consists of granite, limestone, primary rock, schistus, volcanic ashes, and madrepores, with a very small proportion of alluvial deposits on a few spots.

CLIMATE.—From the smallness of the isle, and its elevation above the sea, St. Kitt's is extremely dry and healthy; the mean temperature on the coast is 80°, but the mornings and evenings of the hottest days are agreeably cool. The coldest month is February—the warmest August. The winds for the greater part of the year are from the north-east and south-east; and although the isle is, from its position, within the range of the hurricanes, yet by these storms the air is tempered and purified, and health is the natural result. The rains that fall are more

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frequent than heavy, and the bracing qualities of the atmosphere are pourtrayed in the ruddy complexions of the inhabitants, and the vigorous strength of body which they possess.

VEGETATION is similar to that of the neighbouring isles already described. Among its numerous fruits, the *citrus aurantium*, or China orange-tree, as also the Seville, grows in great luxuriance; it rises from twelve to twenty feet in height, distinguished by the beautiful deep green of its foliage; stem upright and ramifying in every direction, forming a regular and beautiful head. The fruit is excellent, and may be improved by grafting on the Seville orange stock; but the best is to be obtained by grafting on the pomegranate. The flowers are highly odoriferous, and yield their flavour to rectified spirits by infusion, and to both spirit and water by distillation. The *citrus acrus*, or lime tree, as also the citrus or sweet lime, resembles the orange. From the latter the perfume called burgamot is obtained, which is, in fact, the essential oil that resides in the rind of the fruit, and easily extracted by expression or distillation. There are varieties, also, of the lemon, *citrus limon*; but the most elegant of this genus is *citrus tuberosa*, or citron tree, the fruit of which imparts to spirits an agreeable flavour. The *shaddack* and forbidden fruit are of the citrus tribe. The shaddock is supposed to have been transplanted from Guinea, in Africa, by a Captain Shaddock, whose name it still bears throughout the West Indies. The fruit has all the appearance of belonging to the orange species, and is divided in the same manner, by a thin skin,

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into several quarters; but it is as large as a melon, and of a most agreeable and refreshing flavour, between sweet and acid. The outer coat or skin is extremely thick, of a bitterish taste and a pale yellow, or citron colour, very like, in appearance, to the skin of a lemon. There are two species of the shaddock; the pulp or inside of one is white, that of the other a beautiful pale red: the last is considered the most wholesome. This fruit a European may indulge in with safety; and it is almost the only one in this climate, excepting the orange, that will not injure him on his first arrival. The forbidden fruit is a species of the shaddock, only smaller and more delicate, while the outer skin is less coarse. Its juice and the flavour of the inside are quite delicious in a West Indian climate. The grenadella is another excellent fruit, contained in a soft husk, which is produced by a large passion flower; the husk is filled with a sweet and most agreeable liquid; and the manner of eating it is to cut off one of the ends, and mix up in it Madeira wine and sugar, stirring it all up together: this renders it safe and wholesome for the stomach. It is of the size of a small melon. The *laurus persea*, or avocato, vulgarly called alligator pear, comes to fine perfection here; it is a pulpy fruit, resembling in appearance a large-sized swan's egg; the pulp, or vegetable marrow, as it is called, is enclosed in a light-green papyraceous skin, and contains a large, irregularly-formed seed, that is immediately surrounded by brownish, membraneous coverings.

Population.—The number of inhabitants (as has

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been shown under *History*) was, at one period, particularly as regards whites, very numerous; but war and distress have reduced their strength. In 1804, the island contained 8000 whites and 20,000 blacks.

The following shows the name, area in square miles, and population, as late as can be obtained by me, viz. 1826, of each parish in the island:—

Parishes.	Districts.	Square Miles.	Population.			Legislative Members.
			White.	Coloured.	Slaves.	
St. George ...	Basseterre	10	864	1172	3738	4
St. Peter.....	Ditto	7	108	25	2782	2
St. Mary.....	Cayone	6¼	65	29	2222	3
Christchurch	Nicola-town ...	7¼	41	54	2063	2
St. John	Capisterre	10¼	75	152	1511	2
St. Paul	Ditto	5	68	35	1588	3
St. Anne.....	Sandy Point ...	5	167	247	1997	2
St. Thomas .	Middle Island	10	179	276	2441	2
Trinity	Palmetto Point	7¾	43	6	1543	3
	Total...	68¾	1610	1996	19,885	23

Slave population of St. Kitt's, from 1819 to 1831:—

Years.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumission.
				Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1817	9685	10,483	20,168					
1822	9505	10,312	19,817	1132	1187	1424	1415	217
1825	9324	10,192	19,516	901	765	892	799	265
1828	9198	10,112	19,310	858	848	845	758	243
1831	9141	9,944	19,085	827	801	801	729	243

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By the act so often before alluded to, the number of slaves was 20,660; average value of each, 36*l.* 6*s.*; total relative value, 750,840*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.*, 331,630*l.*

COMMERCE, REVENUE, &c.—Great attention is being paid to agriculture, an association for the promotion of which was established in June, and for the discussion of all subjects relating thereto. The meetings are held quarterly, when ploughing matches take place, and prizes are distributed for show of cattle, &c. &c. Sugar is now the principal product of St. Kitt's, and the amount of the crop varies, of course, with the seasons. There was, of sugar, produced in 1830, 8700 hogsheads; rum, 2429 puncheons; molasses, 1236 puncheons.

Principal exports from St. Christopher's:—

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.
	Hogsheads.	Puncheons.	Puncheons.
1822	6991	509	160
1823	6006	421	1314
1824	9197	1502	3286
1825	6670	1031	2893
1826	8987	1735	2369
1827	7514	1271	2186
1828		No Return.	
1829	8801	2359	1763
1830	8781	2882	1250
1831			

In 1832, the principal exports were,—sugar, lbs., 9,917,572, value, 82,152*l.*; molasses, gallons, 334,396, value, 10,337*l.*; rum, gallons, 114,876, value, 6214*l.*; with sundry other articles: the total value of the exports being 101,148*l.*; and of the imports, 71,981*l.*

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The revenue of the island is derived from custom duties, licences, &c., as in our other possessions.

The gross revenue and expenditure, in pounds sterling, for 1823 :—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1823	7,158	7158
1824	12,031	9420
1825	9,072	6179
1826	5,413	5626
1827	3,846	5333
1828	4,957	5873
1829	8,746	6897
1830	6,937	4933
1831		

MONIES.—The coins of the island are principally English, with some Spanish; and there is also a colonial coin, sent from England, consisting of the following pieces :—

Pieces.	Currency.	Sterling.
$\frac{1}{4}$ dollar . . .	2*s.* 3*d.* . . .	1*s.* $1\frac{1}{2}$*d.*
$\frac{1}{8}$ — . . .	1*s.* $1\frac{1}{2}$*d.* . . .	0*s.* $6\frac{3}{4}$*d.*
$\frac{1}{16}$ — . . .	0*s.* $6\frac{1}{3}$*d.* . . .	0*s.* $3\frac{3}{8}$*d.*

The copper coin used (besides the English penny,) is the *dog*, which passes for three-farthings sterling, seventy-two making the Spanish dollar; the *bitt* is a nominal coin, value $4\frac{1}{2}$*d.* sterling. This description of the coin of St. Kitt's will serve generally for the Virgin Isles, and indeed for the whole of the West India Isles, as regards the same denomination, unless where otherwise specified.

GOVERNMENT.—There is a lieutenant-governor,

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council, and house of assembly at St. Kitt's, with a deputy from Anguilla. Education and religion are generously encouraged, and the colonists have ever manifested a great deal of public spirit. The number of public or free schools is six, with 2002 scholars. There are five Wesleyan missionaries at St. Kitt's; the numbers in society, 2495. There is also an institution for the support and education of poor and destitute children, which was established by private subscription in 1803, and is now provided for out of the public treasury of the island. The present state of the school is,—

	Boys.	Girls.	
Permanent boarders . . .	8	4	12
Day ditto	13	9	22
Day scholars	19	22	41
		Total .	75

Excellent private subscription rooms were formed in 1817, and received a charter of incorporation in 1827. The principal object of the society, is the gradual formation of a permanent library, as a useful addition to the existing public establishments of this island. Regular and early supplies of the best modern productions, reviews, and periodical works, are received in quick succession. The number of subscribers is limited to sixty. The number of places of worship is fifteen, capable of containing 2980 persons; the annual expense of the establishment is 2286*l*.

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CHAPTER II.

NEVIS.

THIS beautiful little island (one of the leeward Caribbees) is separated from St. Kitt's by a strait, almost two miles broad, and full of shoals, in latitude 17° 14′ north, longitude 63° 3′ west. It was first colonized by a few Englishmen, in 1628, under Sir Thomas Warner; it is termed by Smith, in his amusing Natural History of Nevis, "the *mother* of the English Caribbee Isles."

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—Nevis is a single mountain, about four miles in length, three in breadth, eight leagues in circumference, with an area of twenty square miles; springing by an easy ascent, as it were, out of the sea, and evidently of volcanic origin. The summit has the appearance of a crater. At a short distance from Clarke's Hill there are several hot springs, containing neutral salts in solution. Their heat varies from 100° to 108° Fahrenheit. At the base of the mountain is a border of level land, extremely fertile and well planted. The appearance of Nevis is perhaps the most captivating of any island in the West Indies. From the south and west it seems to be nothing but a single cone, rising with

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the most graceful curve out of the sea, and piercing a fleecy mass of clouds which sleep for ever round its summit. It is green as heart can conceive, perfectly cultivated, and enlivened with many old planters' houses of a superior style, and churches peeping out in the most picturesque situations imaginable. A complete forest of evergreen trees grows like a ruff or collar round the neck of the high land where cultivation ceases. On the north and the east the cone is not so perfect; it falls off, in one direction, in a long slope, which terminates in a plain towards the Narrows of St. Kitt's, and is broken to windward into one or two irregular hills.

Columbus is said to have given the present name to this island from the mountain of Nieves, in Spain. Edwards supposes that a white smoke issued, in that age, from a volcano now extinct; but perhaps the vapours which rest on the summit may, more probably, have suggested the notion of snow.

Charlestown, the seat of government, is a larger, smarter, and more populous place than the capital of Montserrat. It lies along the shore of a wide, curving bay, and the mountain begins to rise immediately behind it in a long and verdant acclivity. The court house is a handsome building, with a square in front; it contains a hall on the ground-floor for the assembly and the courts of law, and another room upstairs for the council. The public offices are all placed at one end of the hall, and the chairs for the members, the table, railing, and the whole furniture remarkably neat[1].

[1] Six Months in the West Indies.

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The island is divided into five parishes, and it has three tolerable roadsteads.

POPULATION.—The whole inhabitants are estimated at 500; the free-coloured at 2000; and the slave population, from 1817 to 1831, is thus shown :—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Increase by Birth.		Decrease by Death.		Manumission.
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1817	4685	4917					
1822	4583	4678	547	517	685	537	42
1825	4591	4695	349	316	358	335	38
1828	4574	4685	323	315	328	301	61
1831	4526	4616	334	309	343	336	66

Number of slaves, by emancipation act, 8722; average value of each, 39*l.* 3*s.*; relative value of all, 341,893*l.*; proportion of 20,000,000*l.*, 151,007*l.*

The chief production of the island is sugar, the cultivation of which gives such richness to the scenery. Mr. Beckford describes a field of ripe canes as one of the most beautiful productions that the pen or pencil can possibly describe; it, in common, rises from three to eight feet in height—a difference in growth that very strongly marks the difference of soil or the varieties of culture. It is, when ripe, of a bright and golden yellow; and where obvious to the sun, is in many parts very beautifully streaked with red; the top is of a darkish green; but the more dry it becomes, from either an excess of ripeness or a continuance of drought, of a russet yellow, with long and narrow leaves depending, from

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the centre of which shoots up an arrow-like and silver wand, from two to six feet in height, and from the summit of which grows a plume of white feathers, which are delicately fringed with a lilac dye. The quantity of sugar cleared at Nevis, for the year ending 5th December, 1829, was 3895 hogsheads, 226 tierces, 732 barrels. In 1832, the exports were, —sugar, 3,383,072 lbs., value, 21,846*l.*; molasses, 75,520 gallons; rum, 45,900 gallons; tobacco, 2700 lbs. Total value of all exports, 28,871*l.*; ditto of imports, 28,686*l.*

The shipping employed:—

Places.	Inwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	4	1,349	75
British Colonies	56	7,436	753
United States	20	3,292	158
Foreign States.....	64	2,363	263
Total.....	144	14,440	1249

The government is quietly and respectably conducted by its council and assembly, under certain subordinate restrictions to St. Christopher's.

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CHAPTER III.

ANGUILLA.

LOCALITY—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—POPULATION, &c.

ANGUILLA, or Snake Island, (so called from its tortuous or eel-like form,) is situated between 18° north latitude, and 64° west longitude, forty-five miles to the north west of St. Kitt's, and separated from St. Martin's by a narrow channel. The island is in length about thirty miles, and in breadth scarcely more than three miles.

HISTORY.—In 1650 it was discovered and colonized by the English, in whose possession it has ever since remained, subject, however, to transient incursions from the French and from pirates. In every instance, however, the islanders have displayed a noble spirit of independence and bravery. In 1745, the colonists, although then only about 100 strong, repulsed a body of 1000 French who came to attack them, and obliged them to retire, with the loss of 150 men. In 1796, the latter retaliated in a manner worthy of the atrocities of the Revolution: two ships of war were sent, with 400 picked troops, by Victor Hughes, of "red-hot memory," with directions to burn every settlement, and exterminate the whole of

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the inhabitants (British) in the island. These emissaries set about their work in good earnest, and committed the most barbarous atrocities on the defenceless inhabitants; but were happily interrupted by the arrival of Captain Barton, in the Lapwing man-of-war, who brought the French ships to action, sinking one and taking the other.

PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE, GOVERNMENT, &c.—Anguilla is flat, without mountains or rivers, and with a deep chalky soil. It presents a very singular appearance for a West Indian island. A little wall of cliff, of some forty feet in height, generally rises from the beach, and, when you have mounted this, the whole country lies before you, gently sloping inwards in a concave form, and sliding away, as it were, to the south, where the land is only just above the level of the sea. The Flat Island and St. Martin's terminate the view in this direction. Nine-tenths of the country are entirely uncultivated. In some parts a few coppices, but more commonly a pretty species of myrtle, called by the negroes maiden-berry, seems to cover the whole soil. The roads are level grassy tracks, over which it is most delightful to ride; and the houses and huts of the inhabitants are scattered about in so picturesque a manner, as to bear a great resemblance to many scenes in Kent and Devonshire. Indeed there are scarcely any of the usual features of West Indian landscape visible; neither of those prominent ones, the lively windmill or the columnar palm, are to be seen; and there is a rusticity, a pastoral character on the face of the land, its roads and its vegetation,

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which is the exact antipode of large plantations of sugar. In the centre of the island is a salt lake, yielding annually 3,000,000 bushels, a great part of which was wont to be exported to America. The soil yields freely sugar, cotton, maize, and provisions, and many cattle are reared. The climate is extremely healthy, and the people (amounting, in 1819, to—whites, 360; coloured, 320; and slaves, 2451) strong and active. The colonists have a chief or head magistrate, who is confirmed in his office by the government of Antigua, and a deputy is sent to the St. Kitt's assembly. The Wesleyans have a missionary on the island, and 398 members in society. In 1835, there were twenty-one baptisms and nine marriages among the missionaries' disciples.

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CONCLUSION.

THE present and the preceding volume completes the History of the British Colonies in the West Indies[1]. It would have afforded me much gratification to have been enabled to place before the public an accurate view of the working of the Slave-Emancipation Act, but I find the statements thereon so contradictory, that there is still so much party feeling on the question, and so much of exaggerated hopes and fears, that a longer period must elapse before a just conclusion can be arrived at. No friend of the human race—and, in particular, no Briton—can contemplate unmoved the truly noble experiment, not only for the abolition of slavery in the British Empire, but for the elevation of the African race from the moral degradation and mental servitude in which they have been so long sunk. Nor must we omit to consider that on the final result of emancipation in our own Colonies depends, in a great degree, the proximate or remote termination of bondage among the Colonies of France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, &c., and in the southern portion of the United States.

However much we may desire as Christians to witness the abolition of slavery in the settlements of

[1] The Bermudas are reserved for the volume on Nova Scotia, &c. as they form a part of the Diocese thereof.

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our neighbours, I fear that their respective governments are anxiously awaiting the result of emancipation in the English Colonies, ere they form any judgment or decision. This cannot be effectively done until after the apprenticeship has expired, when the practicability of free labour among the negroes will be fully tested.

When we consider, therefore, how much depends on the working of emancipation in our own dominions, it behoves us to act with the greatest deliberation and forbearance. We should use every possible effort to advance the welfare of the *ci-devant* Slave Colonies; no means should be left untried to promote the moral and religious culture of the negro's mind, and to fit him for the high and valuable privilege to which he will shortly be fully entitled.

The introduction of a sound system of banking in the West Indies—the extension of steam navigation throughout the Western hemisphere—the reduction, and (where practicable) the entire removal of duties on articles of West India produce, when imported into the United Kingdom—and the permission for the colonists to buy in the cheapest market whatever they require, and to sell in the dearest country whatever they have to dispose of, unfettered by navigation laws and commercial restrictions,—these will give a new tone and stimulus to the languid and almost torpid energies of the West India planters. Let them be permitted to clay and refine their own sugars for the English market—let their tobacco be received at a yearly diminishing duty—and the various products of the soil, especially sugar, coffee,

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and cocoa, have the lowest possible tax levied on them consistent with Revenue advantages. (See larger edition of this work for arguments in favour of a more just mercantile policy for the West Indies.)

If these measures be promptly and generously carried into effect, I do not fear the result of the emancipation of the slaves, as I feel assured that when labour meets its due reward, whether it be given to a negro [1] or an European, it will operate as an incitement to industry, thus producing social concord and all the blessings of peace.

[1] The progressive results of emancipation are thus shown in a recent Number of the *Falmouth* (Jamaica) *Post*—In one year and ten months after the abolition of slavery, 34,000*l.* have been raised by the negroes for the release of one thousand of their body from the obligations of the apprenticeship. When we consider that the sum which a person so pays is the proved net value of his uncompensated services, over and above the six millions five hundred thousand pounds sterling already divided among the former slaveholders of this colony (which six millions five hundred thousand pounds is money laid down six years in advance for the redemption of the slave), we shall find that full value has been paid for the emancipation of the bondman. If at one year and ten months the average of the money paid is 34*l.* it is not too much to say that on the 1st of August, 1834, the average was 40*l.* 217,000*l.* on the number of slaves who were recorded as apprentices by the valuators. This gives an estimate furnished by the colonists themselves, of eight millions six hundred and eighty thousand pounds currency, in addition to the six millions five hundred thousand pounds sterling, or ten millions currency, already paid and distributed, making an aggregate of money and value in services, after money paid, more than eighteen millions for negro emancipation in the island of Jamaica.

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APPENDIX.

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APPENDIX (A).

STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH WEST INDIES *.

Possessions.	Insular or Continental.	Locality.		Area in Square Miles.	Population.		Colonial Finances †.	
		Latitude N.	Longitude W.		White.	Coloured.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
							£.	£.
Guiana	Continental	6 *a* 8	56 *a* 60	100,000	3,500	100,000	60,000	70,000
Jamaica	Insular	17 *a* 18	76 *a* 78	6,400	35,000	450,000	300,000	300,000
Trinidad	Ditto	9 *a* 10	60 *a* 61	2,400	3,320	39,000	35,000	35,000
Tobago	Ditto	11.16	60.30	187	450	14,000	10,000	9,000
Grenada	Ditto	12.20	61.30	125	800	27,000	13,000	13,300
St. Vincent's	Ditto	13.10	60.37	130	1,300	25,000	15,000	14,000
Barbadoes	Ditto	13. 5	59.41	150	14,000	90,000	17,000	18,000
St. Lucia	Ditto	13.50	60.58	58	1,070	17,000	10,000	10,000
Dominica	Ditto	15.25	61.15	275	840	20,000	7,000	6,000
Montserrat	Ditto	16.47	62.13	47	320	7,000	2,500	2,500
Antigua	Ditto	17. 3	62. 7	108	2,000	33,000	16,000	16,000
St. Christopher's	Ditto	17.18	62.40	68	1,600	21,000	8,000	8,000
Nevis	Ditto	17.14	62. 3	20	700	10,000	3,000	3,600
Anguilla	Ditto	18. 0	64. 0	‡.....	360	3,000		
Virgin Isles	Ditto	18.20	64.39		500	7,000	1,000	1,200
Bahamas	Ditto	21 *a* 27	71 *a* 79	4,400	4,150	12,000	19,000	20,000
Bermudas	Ditto	32.20	64.50	22	4,000	4,800	10,000	10,000
Honduras	Continental	17 *a* 19	88 *a* 90	62,750	330	4,800	15,000	15,000
			Totals.....	177,140	74,240	884,600	541,500	551,600

* Our Colonial Statistics are so vague and so imperfect, that it is extremely difficult to approximate to truth. This table, as also a similar one in the first volume, is given for the purpose of affording a comparative view of the colonies, and to demonstrate their importance in the aggregate.

† I do not include the charges incurred by England for troops.

‡ No returns to government.

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STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH WEST INDIES—(*continued*).

Possessions.	General Commerce.		British Shipping.		Property.		Capital Cities, or Chief Towns.	Ceded, Conquered, or Colonized.	Date of Acquisition.
	Imports.	Exports.	Inwards from Great Britain.	Outwards to Great Britain.	Yearly Created.	Moveable and Immoveable.			
	£.	£.	Tons.	Tons.	£.	£.			
Guiana	1,000,000	3,000,000	60,000	72,000	3,789,166	24,020,000	George Toown	Conquered	1803
Jamaica	3,000,000	4,000,000	76,000	88,000	8,581,283	44,900,000	Spanish Town	Ditto	1655
Trinidad	300,000	250,000	21,600	18,000	1,332,100	7,710,000	Port of Spain	Ditto	1797
Tobago	117,000	160,000	7,200	7,400	500,000	1,900,000	Scarborough	Ceded and ditto	1763
Grenada	80,000	220,000	11,400	10,100	1,000,000	4,800,000	St. George's	Ditto	1783
St. Vincent's	100,000	330,000	10,300	12,700	1,200,000	6,000,000	Kingstown	Ditto	1783
Barbadoes	370,000	776,000	19,000	20,000	2,000,000	15,000,000	Bridgetown	Colonized	1625
St. Lucia	65,000	83,000	4,000	4,500	300,000	1,200,000	Castries	Conquered	1803
Dominica	82,000	120,000	3,400	4,000	350,000	1,500,000	Roseau	Ditto and Ceded	1783
Montserrat	18,000	30,000	1,000	1,200	100,000	1,000,000	Plymouth	Ditto and Colon.	1632
Antigua	150,000	300,000			800,000	5,000,000	St. John's	Ditto	1632
St. Christopher's	60,000	150,000	7,400	6,600	600,000	3,000,000	Basseterre	Ditto	1623
Nevis	29,000	80,000			180,000	1,000,000	Charlestown	Ditto	1628
Anguilla					20,000	160,000	Anguilla	Colonized	1650
Virgin Isles	30,000	10,000	3,000	2,500	60,000	500,000	Tortola	Ditto	1666
Bahamas	91,400	76,500	2,000	2,000	300,000	2,000,000	Nassau	Ditto	1629
Bermudas	80,000	27,000	2,300	500	160,000	1,000,000	St. George	Ditto	1611
Honduras	234,000	320,000	10,000	11,000	700,000	6,000,000	Belize	Ditto	1650
Totals	5,806,400	9,932,500	238,600	260,500	21,972,549	126,690,000			

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APPENDIX (B).

OFFICE OF COMMISSIONERS OF COMPENSATION,
July 7, 1835.

WHEREAS by an Act of the 3rd and 4th Wm. IV. cap. 73, intituled "An Act for the Abolition of Slavery throughout "the British Colonies; for promoting the industry of the "manumitted Slaves; and for compensating the persons "hitherto entitled to the Services of such Slaves;"—The Commissioners appointed thereunder are directed by the 45th clause to apportion the Compensation Fund of Twenty Millions of Pounds Sterling, granted by the said Act, into nineteen different shares, to be respectively assigned to the several British Colonies or Possessions thereinafter mentioned, that is to say, the Bermuda Islands, the Bahama Islands, Jamaica, Honduras, the Virgin Islands, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, St. Christopher's, Dominica, Barbadoes, Grenada, Saint Vincent's, Tobago, St. Lucia, Trinidad, British Guiana, the Cape of Good Hope, and Mauritius:—And in making such apportionment, the said Commissioners were to have regard to the number of Slaves belonging to or settled in each of such Colonies according to the latest returns made in the Office of Registrar of Slaves in England: And also to the prices for which, on an average of eight years, ending on 31st December, 1830, Slaves had been sold in each of such Colonies respectively: And the said Commissioners were then to proceed to ascertain in reference to each Colony, what amount of Sterling Money would represent the average value of a Slave therein for the said period of eight years: And the total number of the Slaves in each Colony being multiplied into the amount of Sterling Money so representing such average value as aforesaid of a Slave therein, the product of such multiplication should be ascertained for each Colony separately, and the said sum of Twenty Millions of Pounds Sterling should then be assigned and apportioned amongst the said several Colonies rateably and in proportion to the product so ascertained for each respectively.

And the said Commissioners have thereupon, according to the directions and in the mode prescribed by the said clause, assigned and apportioned the sum of Twenty Millions Pounds Sterling to and amongst the said Colonies, rateably and in proportion to the product so ascertained for each respectively in the manner following, that is to say:—

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INTER-COLONIAL APPORTIONMENT.

COLONY.	Average Value of a Slave from 1822 to 1830	Number of Slaves by the last Registration in this Country.	Relative Value of the Slaves.	Proportion of the £20,000,000 to which the Colony is entitled.
	£. s. d.		£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Bermuda	27 4 11¾	4203	114527 7 5½	50584 7 0½ .41
Bahamas	29 18 9¾	9705	290573 15 3¾	128340 7 5¾ .47
Jamaica	44 15 2½	311692	13951139 2 3	6161927 5 10¾ .58
Honduras.....	120 4 7½	1920	230844 0 0	101958 19 7½ .92
Virgin Islands	31 16 1¾	5192	165143 9 3	72940 8 5½ .76
Antigua	32 12 10½	29537	964198 8 10½	425866 7 0½ .13
Montserrat ...	36 17 10¾	6355	234466 8 0½	103558 18 5⅝ .25
Nevis	39 3 11¾	8722	341893 6 3½	151007 2 11¾ .35
St. Christopher's	36 6 10½	20660	750840 7 1	331630 10 7½ .83
Dominica.....	43 8 7½	14384	624715 2 0	275923 12 8½ .20
Barbadoes	47 1 3½	82807	3897276 19 0½	1721345 19 7⅝ .87
Grenada	59 6 0	23556	1395784 16 0	616444 17 7⅝ .03
St. Vincent's	58 6 8	22997	1341491 13 4	592508 18 0½ .93
Tobago	45 12 0½	11621	529941 16 2½	234064 4 11¾ .55
St. Lucia	56 18 7	13348	759890 10 4	335627 15 11¾ .19
Trinidad	105 4 5½	22359	2352655 18 0¾	1039119 1 3½ .11
British Guiana	114 11 5¾	84915	9729047 13 5½	4297117 10 6½ .30
Cape of Good Hope.....	73 9 11	38427	2324224 7 9	1247401 0 7¾ .76
Mauritius	69 14 3	68613	4783183 15 3	2112632 10 11¾ .06 * .03
		780993	45281738 15 10½	20000000 0 0

* Deficient Fractions.

(Signed) JOHN BONHAM CARTER, JAMES LEWIS, JAMES STEPHEN, SAMUEL DUCKWORTH, THOMAS AMYOT, HASTINGS ELWIN, HENRY FREDERICK STEPHENSON.

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APPENDIX (C).

RETURN OF THE HONOURABLE HOUSE OF COMMONS, dated 11th April, 1836, for

"An Account of the Quantities of Sugar imported into the United Kingdom from the West Indies between 1st January, 1834, and 1st January, 1835; and also between 1st January, 1835, and 1st January, 1836; distinguishing the proportions received by each Colony respectively; the same of Rum."

COLONIES From which Imported.	SUGAR (Unrefined.)		RUM.		MOLASSES.	
	Year ending 5th Jan. 1835.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.	Year ending 5th. Jan. 1835.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1835.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Proof Gals.	Proof Gals.	Cwt.	Cwt.
Antigua	257,177	174,818	71,445	67,051	87,882	75,985
Barbadoes	394,527	344,689	2,170	1,798	55,553	58,125
Dominica	54,876	25,014	27,764	7,308	2,550	2,700
Grenada	194,542	170,280	247,049	248,524	23,219	8,747
Jamaica	1,256,253	1,148,760	2,924,067	2,450,272	2,809	982
Montserrat	26,631	16,261	20,480	26,492	4,779	1,848
Nevis	59,748	39,637	23,286	39,366	5,466	161
St. Christopher	105,246	87,614	79,080	107,101	17,397	7,526
Anguilla	109	—	—	—	—	—
St. Lucia	63,306	54,744	4,707	10,972	2,811	6,057
St. Vincent	213,017	195,057	93,397	189,154	33,094	26,455
Tobago	79,108	77,260	272,787	299,705	11,646	5,986
Tortola	21,926	13,821	3,478	5,220	—	1,408
Trinidad	339,615	289,393	7,714	9,586	99,494	84,640
Bahamas	4	—	—	59	—	—
Bermudas	—	—	2	35	—	—
Total.....	3,066,085	2,637,348	3,777,426	3,462,643	346,700	280,620
Demerara	687,282	760,376	1,273,693	1,875,245	282,967	221,782
Berbice	90,699	126,485	61,277	115,411	20,699	5,225
Honduras	—	—	4	18	—	—
Grand Total...	3,844,066	3,524,209	5,112,400	5,453,317	650,366	507,627

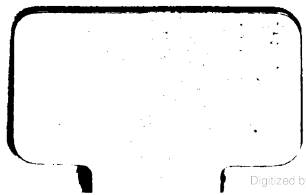
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